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The Week

EIGHT years ago, when President Taft called Congress in special session shortly after his inauguration, only five committees were appointed: Accounts, Mileage, Revision of the Laws (a joint committee), Rules, and Ways and Means. But these would not suffice for the present problem. The special session of 1909 had just one important piece of work, the revision of the tariff. One of the most necessary committees now will be the Appropriations Committee, over the chairmanship of which, fortunately, there will be no contest if the Democrats organize the House, or if it falls to them in a division of chairmanships between the parties. The ability of Representative Fitzgerald assures him—and Northern Democrats—this responsible position.

AS if there were not enough uncertainty over the organization of the House in the unstable equilibrium of parties, we now have a picture of confusion in cross currents within each party. The Republicans have a sharp thorn in the flesh in the Progressives, but that is a simple matter in comparison with the conflicting groups among the Democrats. The "wets" are threatening war against Democratic chairmen in revenge for the passage of prohibition legislation at the last session; the "drys" retaliate with the menace of a coalition with the Republicans, which would relegate the insurrectionists from the head to the foot of their committees. Northern Democrats are discontented because of the dominance of Southern Democrats. Even the five independents cannot agree, and with the balance of power in their hands are preparing to vote individually instead of in a body. The seniority rule is reported to be in danger, and no one knows whether the new committees will be appointed by the Ways and Means Committee, by a special committee, or by the House. Representatives could not ask for a better opportunity of showing the patriotism and efficiency which they agree that the country should be displaying just now.

IN the main the regulations of the censorship suggested to the press will not be greatly objected to, barring one loosely drawn paragraph which would seem to prevent any discussion of governmental policy. This is precisely what the General Staff in its memorandum apparently aimed at, but it is something to which, we are convinced, neither Secretary Baker nor Secretary Daniels would agree. The whole set of rules might well be revised for greater clarity, and the objectionable one omitted. But, after all, while rules of censorship are one thing, the all-important question is the administration of the censorship. If it is entrusted to such short-sighted and stupid officials as received authority over the press in England, the result is certain to be exasperating to a degree, if, indeed, it does not result in misrepresentation or undue suppression of news and opinion. What we need is a joint board, consisting of Government officials and newspaper men, with perhaps a body of appeal comprising newspaper men. There are journalists qualified by long experience with the censorship in Europe since the war began to undertake the work and avoid the errors made abroad. If the whole matter is to be given over to army and navy officials, there will be a most unhappy Fourth Estate in case of war.

IT is right and fitting that the first formal recognition of the new-born Russian democracy should have come from us, who embody the first large-scale experiment in democracy of modern times. By that fact we are more qualified than any other nation to understand the aspirations of the Russian people, just as we are specially qualified to understand the evil nature of the system which the Russian people have shaken off their shoulders, by the presence in this country of millions of men who have suffered in their person the iniquities of Romanoff despotism. But more than that: Mr. Wilson must have been speaking with something of prophetic vision two months ago when he told Congress and the world that there could be no lasting peace "which does not recognize and accept the principle that governments derive all their just powers from the consent of the governed, and that no right exists anywhere to hand peoples about from sovereignty to sovereignty as if they were property." The Russian revolution affirms both contentions. It is at the same time an assertion of democracy and a protest against the machinations of a court camarilla which sought to make a separate peace with Germany, involving the transfer of large sections of Russia. One could only wish that our sympathy with the new régime at Petrograd had been expressed in more fervent terms than the very formal phraseology which our Ambassador used. But the Russian people will recognize the feeling behind the words.

"NOTHING now stands in the way of a new commercial treaty between Russia and the United States." Such is the effect, as stated by Foreign Minister Milyukov, of the revolution upon the international relations of the former empire. Had the overturn taken place a century ago, its benefits, both internal and external, would have been the subject of effusive panegyrics in Congress and the newspapers. Those benefits are no less real for the more restrained way in which we speak of them. Indeed, not least of them is the renewed faith which the event gives such veteran democrats as Americans in democracy. Not Petrograd alone, but Finland and American Jews halfway round the world, are to profit by Russia's emancipation. And what of Poland? Surely she is not to be allowed to become another Ireland. If the benefits of the new order do not all at once extend to the limit of her great dream, yet she can hardly look for anything but decided and steady improvement in her political position. All these things are useful reminders that democracy is not a mere yielding to impulse, a throwing off of checks and obstacles, but, on the contrary, the grown-up way of conducting national and international affairs.

AT the meeting of the Imperial War Conference in London on Wednesday of last week, it is cabled, the Colo-

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nial Secretary "expressed his pleasure at the presence of Indian representatives for the first time at an Imperial Conference." Hitherto the officials of the India Office have spoken for India's millions at similar gatherings; at this the most important of the conferences she is represented by Austen Chamberlain, advised by Sir P. Sinha, Lieutenant-Governor Meston of Agra and Oudh, and the Maharajah of Bikaner. India has also an equal vote with Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Newfoundland, and South Africa, indicative of her place in a commonwealth comprising nearly a fourth of the people of the earth. Since the Conference of 1911 many matters of general Imperial interest, then discussed but tentatively—tariffs, immigration, the part of the dominions in foreign affairs, dominion defence, taxation—have gained a great new importance, and the sessions now beginning may prove a landmark in the history of common Imperial action. In them India should have a voice, as a country whose part in the war Parliament acknowledged in a special way just recently. Her place in the Conference is also suggestive of the new seriousness with which Great Britain regards the governmental problems within India. The *Round Table* recently asserted that in order to solve these problems it is "practically essential that the conservative tradition of Britain should be combined with the initiative and robust confidence in self-government of the younger democracies."

THE French battleship Danton, whose sinking by a submarine is now officially admitted by the French Government, is the third or fourth large battleship to be sunk when surrounded by a convoy of destroyers and patrol boats. The Danton had one destroyer near her and patrol boats to a number not specified, yet the submarine escaped easily. This is a fact of great importance which has not been sufficiently dwelt upon. It should be impressed upon those Americans who seem to feel that the task of sweeping the submarines from the seas is merely a question of a decision by the Cabinet and Congress and the sending of our destroyers and patrol boats to convoy our merchantmen. As yet, *no effective defence against the submarine* has been worked out, least of all for a battleship. Hence, the probability that there is truth in the repeated reports that England has ceased building battleships and battle-cruisers. At least, it must now be plain that those large vessels can be used only if you can get them into action with other large ships of the enemy nation. In the face of these facts, the action of Congress in voting for a lot of battleships and battle cruisers, which cannot be completed until long after the war is over, without awaiting the actual lessons of the war and ignoring what has happened to battleships abroad, will certainly be a cause of wonder to the future historians of this amazing period.

KARL LIEBKNECHT'S imprisonment created a vacancy both in the Reichstag and in the Prussian Diet; it is as if with us the same man were to be a member of the Legislature at Albany and of Congress. To fill the vacancy in both bodies the anti-governmental Socialists put forward Franz Mehring. His opponent in both cases was a representative of the "majority" Socialists, that is, the Socialists who support the Government. Oddly enough, Mehring has been defeated in the Reichstag contest, in which voting is direct and universal, and has been elected to the Prussian Diet, for which the voting is indirect and cumbrously anti-democratic. Yet an explanation is not difficult. The double outcome measures the same difference of German sentiment towards Imperial problems and towards internal problems which we find reflected in the German press. Though there is Socialist discontent with the war, it apparently was not strong enough in this particular constituency to elect an anti-war Socialist to the Reichstag. But at the same time there was overwhelming resentment against the maintenance of the mediæval Prussian franchise, and not even an electoral system designed to frustrate popular expression could prevent Mehring's election by an overwhelming vote. The German people may not be ready to cry quits in the war, but are evidently sick of Junkerdom.

BRITISH official figures on submarine sinkings for the week ending March 18 show sixteen ships of more than 1,600 tons lost, as against thirteen ships for the preceding week, an increase, but not a particularly striking increase. What the losses are in actual tonnage we may calculate somewhat after this fashion: The official German statement for February for all nationalities mentions 368 ships sunk, with a total of 781,500 tons; this would give an average tonnage of 2,120 per ship. Enemy vessels sunk, according to Berlin, were 292, with a total of 644,000 tons; this would give the average tonnage of 2,200 per ship. If we assume 2,500 tons as the average for the ships dealt with in the latest Admiralty reports—sixteen of more than 1,600 tons and eight of under 1,600 tons—this would give for the week of March 18 a total loss of 55,000 tons, with an indicated monthly rate of about 250,000 tons. It is a rough approximation, but the conclusion is inescapable that March has seen a decided falling off from the pace set by the U-boats in February. This will be accounted for by the fact that in the early part of March the submarines were back in port refitting. The final days of the present month may see a notable increase. But at best we are very far from the million tons of British shipping per month upon which the new ruthlessness set its heart.

THE true way of judging the immediate effect of the new submarine warfare upon British shipping is by the weekly movement of ships in British ports. In his speech of last month in the House of Commons it was stated by Sir Edward Carson that during the first eighteen days of February the total of arrivals and departures was 11,949, or an average of 664 per day. For the week ending March 18 the arrivals and departures were 5,082, or a daily average of 726. Whatever may be the ultimate effect upon British shipping, the immediate results are thus shown to be nil. Englishmen are right in giving their minds to the question of what will happen if the U-boats continue their work unchecked for a year. But in Germany at the same time they must be beginning to wonder what will come of the promise that proud Albion would be brought to her knees in two or three months; some fervent spirits saw the end of things in four weeks. Germany may conceivably win the war at sea, but she will not win it through the lightning blow which the German people have been promised. Only one more failure is to be added to the record of German masterstrokes for hastening peace—which began with the invasion of Belgium.

BIPARTISANSHIP seems to have taken firm root in Indiana, where both parties are generously represent-

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ed among the sixty-seven men who have pleaded guilty to election frauds, out of 153 indicted. Terre Haute and Indianapolis are evidently determined not to be shaken from the proud eminence which they occupied for some years in conjunction with Adams County, Ohio. Once more we are impelled to ponder on the formidable indictment which Prof. E. A. Ross drew up some time ago against the immigrant as a vitiating influence in our public life. The author was at great pains to point the contrast between the process of degeneration actively at work in communities like New York or Boston and the maintenance of the old national ideals in such "homogeneous" communities as Indianapolis. Very shortly after the good professor's challenge to the foreign-born came the wholesale indictment and conviction of Indiana Mayors and municipal councillors; but then that may have been due to the 10 per cent. foreign element which did manage to filter into Indiana. And the present episode is probably the last outbreak of the foreign poison before the Immigration Restriction law has had time to produce results.

REVOLUTIONARY economic changes have succeeded one another with such bewildering rapidity that it is becoming more and more difficult to judge of their significance. The full extent of Lloyd George's new regulations on imports is but slowly becoming apparent. It is far more than the most ardent exponents of protective tariff in this country have ever dared contemplate. Complete exclusion has been only vaguely discernible in the back of their minds. Yet it has been inaugurated in England at a stroke. Apparently, moreover, regulation of prices is to apply only to foodstuffs. Any effort to raise the price above the existing level is to be met by confiscation of the whole supply. But this does not include the many manufacturers whose goods are also on the proscribed list. What will be their policies as to prices? No doubt, steps will be taken to prevent undue extortion. But after the war we may look forward to strenuous efforts on the part of certain industries to retain permanently the temporary advantage which they have gained.

MR. JULIUS ROSENWALD'S notable gift of $1,000,000 to the ten-million-dollar fund for Jewish War Relief is, if we remember correctly, the most generous donation yet made to any of the war funds by an American citizen. As such it must give tremendous encouragement not only to the Jewish War Relief Fund, but to others as well. Is there no one to equal this gift by a similar one to the Belgian sufferers? Surely, some of those who have made millions out of the war ought to be willing to match Mr. Rosenwald's gift. The United States has not yet begun to give what it should, and even if war comes to us there should be an increasing stream of donations on their way across the seas. The Belgians need our aid as never before, and the stories daily appearing as to the appalling devastation in the districts now being vacated by the Germans in France show that there must be complete reconstruction there as soon as war conditions permit. This should be America's privilege, first of all. Meanwhile, every one must be grateful to Mr. Rosenwald, who has so steadily shown that he knows how to use well his great wealth, for setting an example that everybody should follow to the extent of his ability.

ORGANIZED labor so often obstructs good legislation that special commendation is due the programme of the South Carolina Federation of Labor. Its executive committee has hit on just what South Carolina needs. It declares for State-wide compulsory attendance at school and the lengthening of the minimum school term to seven months; for forbidding the employment of children under sixteen in textile industries, and for increasing the fine for violation of child-labor laws to $50; for forbidding the employment of women for more than ten hours a day or sixty a week, or after ten at night, and raising the fine for violations of this act to $50 also; for increasing the number of factory inspectors; and for a State Bureau of Labor. Most notable of all is the Federation's call for a popular election on the suffrage question, and in favor of votes for women. A determined stand by workmen might bring South Carolina to such earnest consideration of this question as Tennessee has just given it.

THE masterly retreat executed by Columbia's trustees in the matter of the investigation of what the professors might be saying in the privacy of their classrooms gives us absolute confidence that American strategy will be found equal to whatever tasks it may have to meet. Not von Hindenburg himself could have retrieved an error more skilfully. The whole rumpus was over an absurd misunderstanding—the trustees understood certain English words, placed in a certain order, to mean one thing, and the faculty understood them to mean something quite different! Was ever anything more annoying? Especially as the newspapers got hold of it, and some of the most prominent members of the faculty began to say something that sounded like "resign." The trustees would have been conceding enough if they had proposed to refer the "misinterpreted" words to a joint high commission, composed, say, of the professors of English at Princeton, Yale, and Harvard, but they had a grander plan. They invited the faculty to coöperate in the inquiry—now specifically defined to be "into conditions of education and administration in the University." Not a word about "subversive" or "tending to discourage loyalty." Thus at a stroke they establish the correctness of their original position and take up one forty miles behind it.

ALL who are following studiously the trend of education in this country will watch with more than usual interest an experiment which is to be made next autumn with the idea of the "modern" school. The idea is, of course, not entirely novel, as it is closely related to that of the Gary schools. But the system at Gary, owing to the peculiar demands of the population of the town, has by many been regarded as too special to be adapted for use universally, and the trial accorded it by a few schools in New York has not been wholly convincing. But the approaching experiment in New York has the backing of the General Education Board of the Rockefeller Foundation and, as an adjunct of the Teachers College, the school—Lincoln School it will be called—will thus receive a thorough testing. At first glance the prospectus of its director, Mr. Otis W. Caldwell, is not so revolutionary as one might expect it to be. English literature and composition, French, German, history, civics, fine arts, music, mathematics, nature study, general science, physics, chemistry, botany, zoölogy, household arts, and physical training constitute a list of subjects which is not surprisingly varied in these

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days in which rigorous discipline with very few subjects has gone out of favor. It is the method of teaching which marks the radical nature of the school:

> Organized recreation, play, and games will be provided, and special attention will be given to the physical needs of each pupil. In all subjects, wherever feasible, effort will be made to base school work upon real situations to the end that school work may not only seem real to the pupils, but be so. This result will be contributed to by frequent individual, class, and school excursions; lantern slides, charts, maps, shop, and laboratory; special reading matter and discussions; and constant contact with the natural, industrial, social, civic, and domestic environment.

It remains to be seen whether actual contemporary life offers better material for study than the "book learning" which has until recently been traditional with us; whether a knowledge of principles, which after all is the main thing to be inculcated in youth, can be gained by application to the complex of the life all about us. For the first year the school will be open for pupils of the first three elementary grades and for those of the junior high-school grades 7, 8, and 9.

Belgian Relief Imperilled

THE decision of the Washington Administration to withdraw all Americans engaged in relief work in Belgium and Northern France is doubtless a wise precaution. It is severe language which the State Department uses when it says that the promises of the German Government cannot be trusted, but who will be rash enough to say that it is unfounded? Minister Whitlock is to leave Brussels, where he had been tolerated but reduced to a position that had become intolerable, and is to be near the Belgian Government temporarily at Havre. And the actual work of superintending the distribution of supplies to the needy Belgians is to be transferred from American hands to those of the Dutch. This had been arranged for in advance. Mr. Hoover is not the man to be caught unprepared. He had foreseen the possibility and had made his plans. His Central Committee in London will remain in general charge of the great philanthropy; and we may be sure that everything which can be done by the highest organizing skill and by whole-souled devotion will continue to be done.

Serious difficulties in the shipment of food to Belgium are feared. But what is most to be feared is a failure to supply the money needed to buy and ship the food. Yet the new status of Belgian relief ought to come especially to Americans as a redoubled appeal for funds. Thus far Americans have only touched the hem of the garment of distress in Belgium and the occupied provinces of France. Deep as has been our sympathy, and large as has been our response, we have measured up neither to the necessity nor to our ability. In actual money we have given little more absolutely than the expatriated Belgian workingmen, sending on their monthly savings from their meagre wages. Relatively to what we could and should do, our gifts have been but a beggar's dole.

This has not been owing to hearts hardened to the cry of suffering. The main lack has been of a sense of national duty, expressing itself in a national endeavor. For the various organizations for relief, we have nothing but praise and thanks. But it seems to us that the hour has come for a larger and more resolute grappling with the great work of rescue and rebuilding. It should be attacked in a big way, so as to stir the conscience and open purses from one end of the country to the other. We are facing enormous national expenditures. In their total the amount needed to keep up a decent American contribution to Belgian relief—say, $3,000,000 a month—would appear but a trifle. And what we say is that if it appears that the whole sum needed cannot be procured by private gifts, the time is near when Congress ought to act. We believe that if it should vote the money necessary to keep alive the sufferers in trampled Belgium and in devastated France, all the people would say amen.

We are not going to argue the pathos of overrun Belgium and Northern France. If a man's heart does not throb at the thought of it, he is beyond argument—as he is beyond respect or hope. Nor shall we to-day labor the question of ways and means. The chief thing, the first thing, is to kindle the feeling of splendid opportunity. America has the power to heighten the prestige of her name immeasurably. By a burst of generosity she can best answer the slander that she is sunk in money-making. And she can not only bind up the broken-hearted, but can also link to herself in bonds stronger than steel the affection of two nations.

Such a national gift as we urge would do more than betoken the impulse of the United States to fly to the aid of imperilled peoples. It would convey our admiration as well as our pity. It would be our tribute to the long-enduring heroism of the outraged Belgians, waiting for justice to dawn over a ruined land in which

> Black ashes note where their proud city stood.

And as for France, who would not wish to bow reverently before the undaunted spirit with which her sons have astonished the world? To ask her to share in our bounty would not be merely to let her people know that, in the words of her own poet, her *malheurs* have found *cœurs sensibles* in America. We should, in addition, be showing that we know how to honor the most lofty qualities of the soul of man. The French Academy of Moral Sciences awarded on Saturday the grand prize to Cardinal Mercier. It is a prize founded to recognize "the finest and greatest acts of devotion, of whatever kind." Surely, it was never more worthily conferred. The United States has no such token to bestow. But we have the power to give of our abundance to the brethren of the high-souled Cardinal in such a way as to furnish due tribute to heroic endurance and to enable us to stand prouder before the world.

Organizing the House

THE Congress which meets in special session next Monday will be the first in which the two dominant parties have exactly equal representation in the House. There have been other Congresses in which third parties or independents held the balance of power, notably the one of 1881-1883, in which ten Greenbackers in the House and one independent, David Davis, of Illinois, in the Senate, occupied that not altogether enviable position, but the House of the Sixty-fifth Congress is alone in giving no party a plurality, however narrow. This condition has produced a near-panic among some newspapers and public men, who see the House helplessly drifting, because of inability to transform itself from a mob of gentlemen into a legisla-

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tive body. How can there be a House without a Speaker, and how can there be a Speaker without a party to elect him? If no other House was so equally divided between two parties, nevertheless our history shows occasions fraught with much graver peril to the public interest, owing to the lack of a decided majority for any group.

The first contested election in the House was in 1809, when the election of Speaker was complicated by the question whether two blank ballots should be counted as votes or not. But this was mild in comparison with four later cases. The first of these is as impressive an example as could be wished of the power of the House to organize. When the Twenty-sixth Congress met, on December 2, 1839, Garland, the clerk, in accordance with custom, then and now, summoned it to order and began the roll-call. When he came to New Jersey, he called the name of one member and then remarked that, as five seats belonging to that State were contested, he would pass over the names of the members from New Jersey. Garland's apparent unwillingness to assume authority was in reality a gross assumption of it, for he was taking it upon himself to decide temporarily the status of claimants. His motive made his conduct inexcusable. By keeping the five New Jersey members out until a Speaker had been elected, the Democrats would choose that official. Moreover, his own position as clerk was at stake, in the same way!

The clerk's notice let loose a storm of debate. A motion was made to adjourn. The clerk observed that he could put no question, even of adjournment, until the House was formed. But the knot was quickly cut by a general cry to adjourn, followed by the clerk's declaration that the House was adjourned. Two more days of this farce went by, when common-sense asserted itself. Leaders of both Whigs and Democrats went to the venerable ex-President, John Quincy Adams, and begged him to interfere. On December 5, he rose to address the House—but not the clerk. Turning to the members, he said, "Fellow citizens! Members elect of the Twenty-sixth Congress!" And he urged them to organize themselves, offering as a means towards that end a resolution "ordering the clerk to call the members from New Jersey, possessing the credentials from the Governor of that State." Resolutions there had been before, but the clerk had refused to put them. Representatives cried out: "How shall the question be put?" They received the quiet answer, "I intend to put the question myself." But this was not necessary. The key had been found, and anybody could use it. A South Carolina member sprang to his feet and offered a resolution that Williams, of North Carolina, the oldest member of the House, should be appointed chairman of the meeting. Williams objecting, he substituted the name of Adams, *and put the question.* In reply came "an almost universal shout in the affirmative."

The difficulty in 1849, 1855, and 1859 was the fluid state of parties. Men called themselves Democrats and Whigs, and in the later Congresses, Americans or Know-Nothings, and Republicans, but with the exception of the last, the name meant nothing. In the first of these contests, it was proposed to facilitate the election of a Speaker by transferring his power of appointing committees to the House, and again by electing a temporary chairman. Neither proposal prevailed. Finally, after 59 ballots had been taken, the House decided to smash precedent. It was resolved that "if after the roll shall have been called three times no member shall have received a majority of the whole number of votes, the roll shall again be called, and the member who shall receive the largest number of votes, provided it be a majority of a quorum, shall be declared chosen Speaker." On the third ballot following this resolution, the two leading candidates polled an even number of votes. On the next, the sixty-third, Cobb, of Georgia, had a plurality of two. The same procedure was resorted to in 1855, when the struggle was more bitter, Banks being chosen Speaker by a plurality of three on the one hundred and thirty-third ballot. In 1859, feeling was too intense to permit the adoption of this method; members who were not in the habit of carrying pistols thought it wise to go armed to the House. The removal of the desks, and the installation of benches, an arrangement to which we have recently returned, by bringing members into closer physical contact, added to the excitement. Only forty-four ballots were taken, but the contest lasted until February 1, 1860, when the Republicans managed to obtain a bare majority for Pennington, the only Representative except Clay to be elected Speaker in his first term.

Trade War After the War

PLANS for a trade war after the war are popular because Germany is unpopular. The notion of having to look forward to peaceful dealings with the enemy is naturally repugnant. And the desire for a continuing revenge is no doubt strong. But the root of the idea goes further than this, for it is seen that Germany's military power rests on her industrial strength, and that she may again become a military menace unless her industry is permanently kept down. As M. Hauser suggests, a powerful industrial Germany will mean that the French on the Marne and the Yser will have died in vain. But just what does such a scheme imply? How can it be practically carried out? A trade war is a contradiction in terms, trade being a transaction for mutual advantage, and war being a struggle to overcome the enemy. True, there is competition in trade, but this is not war. Competition is a struggle for advantage, not for annihilation.

If you ask an advocate of trade war what it is that he intends, he will begin by proposing heavy duties in all the Allied countries against German goods; so heavy, indeed, as to be practically prohibitory. This appears simple and efficacious; the bulk of trade would be arrested. In fact, it would be confined to such articles as dyes and potash, which are virtually necessities. But how in this case would Germany be harmed? She would, no doubt, lose a large part of her former markets, and, in so far, she would be forced to make new connections. And she would be prevented from buying the goods which the Allies make most efficiently. This would force her to increased trade with her associates and neutrals, on terms not so advantageous, perhaps, as she would have received from the Allies, but still profitable. But the Allies, also, would lose the benefit of cheap German goods. Dyes made expensive through heavy duties would mean expensive print goods. The overburdened industries would be still more heavily oppressed. And they would be forced to meet the enhanced German competition for neutral markets. The struggle would be converted into a contest in cheapness, and Germany would be beaten only if she could be undersold. This struggle would be all the

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more intense because of its limited scope. A general improvement, applying to the Allies as well as to Germany, but excluding the neutrals, would be all that could be accomplished in this way.

And if these heavy duties were turned into a complete boycott, the same result in a more intensified form would be brought about. The labor of excluding German goods from entering Allied territory by means of neutral trade would in itself be a considerable item of expense; and if, further, there should be inquisitions into the possible German ownership of ostensibly neutral capital, the chances for friction would be many times increased. Moreover, if the Allies were committed to preferential terms among themselves, they would be simply throwing neutral trade into Germany's hands. They would be turning the whole world against themselves. Where the Allies could not seek preferential treaties, Germany would court them. Thus, where they were attempting to exclude Germany, they would be themselves excluded.

Curiously enough, advocates of trade war are generally also in favor of exacting an indemnity for Belgium and Servia. Without going into the desirability of this form of punishment, it must be clear that such a proceeding would have the effect of stimulating trade with Germany. For the indemnity would not be paid in gold, but in manufactures and products of various sorts. Even if it were actually paid in gold, this gold would immediately be used to purchase the other articles which are what is really wanted. And even if the purchases were made from neutral countries, how could these in turn be prevented from trading with Germany, if she afforded their best market, and from thus indirectly bringing about the same result? Mr. Robertson, in an article in the *Contemporary Review*, quotes an advocate of boycott so enthusiastic that he would have the Allies undertake the indemnification of these countries rather than run the risk of contamination from German goods. This may be poor business, but it is at least consistent, and it emphasizes the ultimate results of the boycott.

In short, Germany may be temporarily embarrassed by the imposition of fines and the ill-will which exists in neutral as well as Allied countries. But these will have only a limited power if her goods are really better and cheaper than those of other nations. Even during the war there is apparent the growing conviction that the only way to beat a country commercially is to beat her. It is along these lines that the best thought in all countries is seen to be moving.

Implications of the Decision

IN passing upon the validity of the Adamson law, the Supreme Court could not deal with considerations outside the text of it. Yet these have bulked larger in the public mind than the law itself. The manner of its enactment was a public grievance, quite apart from its contents. That a bludgeon was shaken at Congress to compel it to pass an emergency bill was at the time a source of resentment and concern. It has not ceased to be; nor should it be forgotten, and condemnation of it should not be allowed to relax. But the Court could not go into this. Neither could it take cognizance of the fact that virtually all the benefits which the Eight-Hour law conferred upon the railway workers had been conceded to them by private agreement with the companies before the Court made its decision. That this outside settlement, however, had the effect of diverting general attention from the exact language of the Supreme Court was inevitable. The main thing, it was felt, had been accomplished in advance. Yet the terms of the opinion given by the Chief Justice deserve the most careful study.

The Court appears to affirm the most sweeping powers for Congress. It can fix the hours of work for men employed in interstate commerce. Congress can, at a critical juncture, step forward as a "compulsory arbitrator." It may determine what wages shall be paid, if such determination is necessary in order to "prevent all service from being destroyed" on interstate railways. In general, the opinion of the Court seems to insist that the authority of Congress must be commensurate with every great national exigency. The doctrine of "implied powers" was never more clearly avowed. The Court speaks of a latent power of Congress which may at any moment become living and controlling. It would be hard to find an important decision of the Supreme Court which in words so vivid and strong exalted the power of Congress. It is not strange that some say bitterly in their haste that the Court's decision sweeps away the foundation of private rights in respect of railway property.

A closer reading of the opinion will show that this has not been done. The Court holds the scales level as between carriers and employees. If the former must act like men whose business is affected by a public interest, so must the latter. The decision does not blink the conclusion that men who accept employment in interstate commerce acquire certain privileges, but also assume certain obligations. They are entitled to reasonable hours and fair wages, to protection against accident, and so on, but may at the same time be required to refrain from a course of action which would "bring ruin to the vast interests concerned." The Court does not say in so many words that the railway workers must not be permitted to bring on a general strike, but that view is clearly implied in the language which it uses. Plainly stated is the power of Congress so to act that paralysis of interstate commerce shall be prevented.

Note, however, the underlying reason of the Court's decision. It is the power of Congress to "regulate" interstate commerce. Everything is grouped under that principle. Both public right and private property are freely recognized. It is only when they collide that the regulating power steps in. Here is no nationalization of the railways; no denial of the claims of individual or corporate owners. Simply, in the process of regulation, Congress sees to it that the paramount interests of the public are not sacrificed. Moreover, the Court takes pains to mark out once more the necessary limitations upon the power to regulate. It must always be exercised in consonance with the general rights secured by the Constitution. In the words of Chief Justice White:

> It is always to be borne in mind that as to both carrier and employee the beneficent and ever-present safeguards of the Constitution are applicable, and therefore both are protected against confiscation and against every act of arbitrary power which if given effect to would amount to a denial of due process or would be repugnant to any other constitutional right.

In addition to this, the railways have a special protection

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thrown about their rights by the creation of the Eight-Hour Commission. Its work is to be to study carefully the effect of the Eight-Hour law upon railway finance. If it appears that the new charges are confiscatory, or threaten to become so, the fact will be officially reported to the Interstate Commerce Commission for appropriate action. What that will be is indicated unmistakably by Secretary Lane; the railways will be authorized to increase their rates in order to make up for the cost of higher wages. This statement is the more notable coming from Mr. Lane, inasmuch as he, when himself a member of the Interstate Commerce Commission, was strongly against allowing increases of rate unless their necessity was demonstrated. It is not now open to doubt that if the advance in wages makes too heavy an overhead charge for the railways, they will be able to get relief in the way provided by law. The Adamson act has been upheld by the Supreme Court, but in the same breath it declares that confiscatory legislation, directed against railway owners or anybody else, must be regarded as unconstitutional, null, and void.

The Problems of the New Russia

ONLY twelve years separate the first and second Russian Revolutions, but during these twelve years the entire situation in Russia, the entire situation in Europe, and probably the entire situation in the world, has changed. The comparatively unimportant incident which occurred in Europe a little more than two and one-half years ago, the incident which led to the European war, is now leading to a world war. In the course of the historical development all the countries have become so close to one another that it really can be said that humanity now is one body, although the members of this body are fighting one another; when there is infection in one part of this body there is a real concrete danger for the body itself. One nation is directly concerned in the welfare of another. A danger for one is a danger for all.

The history of the first Russian Revolution presents, I think, one of the best illustrations of this point. The first Revolution had two faults. The first fault was of an internal nature. The social forces opposing the old régime began to fight among themselves before the old régime had been entirely broken. One of the most remarkable moments in the first Revolution was the creation of the First Duma, where the best people, the flower of the country, were represented. The Constitutional Democrats, led then as now by Prof. Paul Milyukov, held the majority in the Duma. The demand of the moment was for the formation of a Cabinet responsible to the legislative bodies. Vladimir Nabokov, one of the leaders of the Constitutional Democrats, made then his historic speech in the Duma, ending with the words, "The executive power should be subordinate to the legislative power." If all the country had become united on this demand then, probably all the following developments would have taken another course. But the left wing, the Revolutionary Socialists in Russia, began a fight against the Constitutional Democrats, who were already so close to becoming a real political power. The only persons who really enjoyed this game were the adherents of the old régime, powerless before a combination of all progressive social forces in Russia, but powerful when these began to fight among themselves. A secret order was given to the police not to oppose any meetings of workingmen in Petrograd, Moscow, and provincial cities at which the revolutionary speakers were doing their work in discrediting the Duma. Finally the Duma was dismissed, and the Revolution was broken. Then followed the years of darkest reaction, the most miserable, unfortunate years in Russian history.

The other fault in the first Russian Revolution was of an external nature. The significance of the Revolution was not understood by the democracies of Europe and the New World. They did not understand that Russian autocracy was a visible, concrete danger to the free and peaceful development of the entire world. If the old régime in Russia had been broken in 1905, then, nine years later, in 1914, Russia would have been so developed, so strong, that the German militarists would never even have thought of fighting the coalition of France, England, and Russia. The alliance of free Russia with the West-European democracies would have seemed natural to the entire world, and this alliance would have been strong enough to guard the peace of Europe.

It is significant that we Russians, being so close to German culture, to German science, to German life, studying carefully everything bearing any relation to Germany, did not see the most remarkable feature of German culture since the Franco-Prussian War. We did not observe the growth of German militarism, the dangerous growth of the tendency to world domination, which brought Germany to this war. On the other hand, Germany, preparing her plans for the future campaign, studying carefully Russian history and Russian life, overlooked the most significant feature of our culture, the ardent patriotism in the finest sense of the word, the love of country, the love of the people, the love of Russia, which has since united the most moderate President of the Duma, Mr. Rodzianko, with the ardent, eloquent, radical Socialist, Kerensky, in accomplishing the second national Revolution.

The plan of the German campaign in Europe was to strike France first, reach Paris, defeat the glorious Republic, and then face the victorious armies about towards Russia. However, there were many factors which Germany, in spite of all her cleverness, could not foresee. She could not foresee the heroic resistance of Belgium, which delayed the victorious march of the German armies towards Paris and paved the way for the French victory on the Marne. She could not foresee the entrance of England in this war because of the violation of Belgian neutrality, and above all she could not foresee the stirring events which took place in Russia.

In preparing the plan for the European campaign Germany counted upon two eventualities in Russia as certain. First, she expected a very slow mobilization, not so much because of the vast spaces of Russia and of the lack of means of transportation, as because the country would have to answer the call of a most unpopular Government. Furthermore, Germany expected an almost immediate revolution in Russia, a revolution that would tear the country asunder and make it an easy prey for her iron hands.

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To comprehend the spirit and the force of the new Revolution it is necessary to note merely one of its remarkable features. At the time when the new Secretary of Justice, the representative of the Labor Group, Deputy Kerensky, was addressing a meeting of Petrograd workingmen and soldiers, the President of the Duma, Mr. Rodzianko, was almost simultaneously addressing the Guard regiments that had come in perfect order to express their loyalty to the Duma and their readiness to support the new Government against the old régime. Kerensky and Rodzianko working together would have seemed an utter impossibility a few years ago. Kerensky, the radical Socialist, and Rodzianko, a moderate Liberal, a nobleman, a former officer whose two sons are now serving as officers in the most aristocratic Russian regiments! Kerensky and Rodzianko coöperating for the common welfare, leading together the Russian Revolution, seems like a fairy tale.

The success of the first step of the Russian Revolution was built upon this close coöperation of all the progressive social forces in Russia. The only danger for the new Russia at present is that of a rupture of this coöperation. Yet so far as events can be foreseen there is no possibility of such an occurrence. The few fanatics on the extreme left wing of Russian politics are without any power or influence among the masses. The most authoritative leaders among the Socialists and extreme radicals, such men as Prince Kropotkin, George Plekhanov, and Vladimir Bourtzev, have stood since the beginning of the war for the prolongation of this struggle to a victorious end and for a coalition of all progressive elements in Russia against the old régime. Prof. Paul Milyukov met Prince Kropotkin and George Plekhanov during his visit with the Russian Parliamentary delegation to the Allies' countries. It was shortly after the formation of the Progressive *bloc*, a combination of the progressive factions in the Duma and in the Imperial Council. It is significant that both these leaders of the extreme radical wing of the Russian Revolution, Kropotkin and Plekhanov, approved of the formation of the *bloc* and endorsed its very moderate political programme.

There are rumors that the leader of the Social Democrats in the Duma, Mr. Chkheidze, accepted the post without portfolio in the Cabinet. If this rumor is true, then the Russian Cabinet represents now a coalition of the five most influential political parties: the Octobrists (Moderate Liberals) with Mr. A. I. Guchkov at the head, the Constitutional Democrats with their leader, Prof. Paul Milyukov, the Progressives led by the new Secretary of Commerce, Mr. A. I. Konovalov, the Labor Group with Mr. Kerensky leading, and the Social Democrats with Mr. Chkheidze. This coalition is strong enough to bury forever the old régime and to build up the new Russia.

If, as seems certain, Prince Kropotkin and George Plekhanov accept the invitation of the new Government to come back to Russia, these two veterans of the Russian Revolution will now appear daily at the mass meetings of workingmen and soldiers in Petrograd, in Moscow, and throughout Russia, using their influence to keep the extreme revolutionary forces in contact and coöperation with the liberal forces. The lessons of 1905 are not forgotten, and the internal dissension of the first Revolution will not be repeated in the second. Since the Constitutional Democrats have proclaimed themselves for a republican Government, the main problem that could have split the new Russia is now solved. The Constitutional Democrats will probably have from 300 to 350 seats out of the 600 seats in the Constituent Assembly. The Socialist factions will in all likelihood have from 150 to 200 votes. This combined majority of from 450 to 550 votes will no doubt decide the form of the future Russian Government, and will outline the social reforms that must be effected in the Russian Republic.

I build my belief in the possibility of a permanent coöperation between the Liberal and Socialist forces on a very noteworthy feature of the Russian Revolution. On the one hand, through the lessons of the terrible war, the Liberals in Russia have become radical as never before. A few years ago Mr. Rodzianko would have taken it as a personal insult if any one had told him that he would lead a revolution in Russia that would overthrow the dynasty. On the other hand, the lessons of the war have brought the Socialist leaders from the heaven of theory and fantasy to the prosy and concrete problems of earth. The hope can also be cherished that the democracies of Europe and of the New World understand the significance of the Russian Revolution as a vital factor in spreading the principles of democracy throughout the world.

A. J. Sack
Staff Correspondent for the Official Publications of the Russian Ministry of Finance

Italy's War of Emancipation

TWO events which have recently happened in Italy are, in their general import, aside from the immediate considerations of policy by which they have been determined, of primary national and international significance. The first is the overwhelming demonstration of approval and esteem accorded in Parliament to the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Sonnino, upon the delivery of his now historic speech on the 18th of December last. The second is the conference of the Allied Governments held in Rome during the first days of January.

Sonnino, more than any other statesman in the present Italian Cabinet, has been responsible for Italy's intervention on the side of the Allies and for her vigorous conduct of the war; he is frankly and irrevocably committed to war to the finish, and the great demonstration of sympathy for him in Parliament was a solemn and forceful reaffirmation of Italy's unalterable purpose to fight it out on the present line until the final triumph of the cause which in May, 1915, she voluntarily espoused as that of liberty and justice. Italy will not lay down her arms until the unredeemed Italian peoples that for a century have been subject to the grievous yoke of Austrian tyranny shall have been liberated, and her own natural frontiers on the northeast delimited.

Incidentally it may be observed that the spontaneous expression of parliamentary approval of Sonnino's foreign policy has clearly marked him out as the next Prime Minister of Italy—in case Boselli's advanced age (he is now seventy-nine) should make it impossible for him to sustain the heavy labors of office for a protracted term.

The conference in Rome has emphasized the importance attributed by the Allies to the whole-hearted and increasing efficient military coöperation of Italy; and in so far as its important deliberations referred to Greece, it was certainly fitting that the place in which they were taken should be the Foreign Office of that Allied Power whose diplomacy from the outset has shown the clearest vision with regard to the conduct and policy of King Constantine.

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On the financial side, the prophecy of Cavour is as true to-day as when it was uttered more than a half-century ago: "Taxes must increase, but the capacity of the country to meet taxation must at the same time increase through the stimulus given to production and the accumulation of riches." Statistics of Government receipts for the last six months, which were recently made public, constitute a remarkable confirmation of the great statesman's words, as revealing accumulated capacity to meet taxation; the showing is, indeed, most favorable and even exceeds official estimates. For the period from July 1 to December 31, 1916, receipts amounted to 342 million lire more than those of the same period of 1915—an increase of about 30 per cent. All classes of imposts contributed to this great augmentation of revenue. Indirect taxes furnished the heaviest increase, amounting to 111 millions, derived from larger customs receipts, from licenses for maritime rights, from taxes on exportation, on the manufacture of spirits, on sugar, on alcoholic drinks, on mineral oils, etc. Taxes on business transactions contributed the heaviest percentage increase (fifty-nine millions, or an increase of more than forty per cent.) derived from larger registration fees, succession dues, stamp taxes, etc. Government monopoly receipts were augmented by sixty-three and one-half millions, principally from tobacco and salt (fifty millions and eleven millions respectively). Direct taxes increased by over eighty millions, of which fifty-two millions were derived from the surtax known as the war centime, twelve and one-half millions from the tax upon those exempted from military service, and nine millions from the tax upon extra war profits. Postal receipts were augmented by twenty-seven and one-half millions. If revenue merely continues at the present level, the year ending on June 30, 1917, will record a total increase close upon half a milliard. This sum is equivalent to interest at five per cent. upon the ten milliard lire which is approximately the cost of the war to Italy in a twelvemonth. National finance in Italy, in spite of enormous war expenditures, continues, then, to rest upon an extremely sound basis.

With regard to war expenditures it should also be borne in mind that not a little of the money that is paid out is applied to the construction of works that will remain permanently productive for the country when peace shall have been reëstablished. The Italian generals in their advances recall the methods of the old Roman proconsuls, whose triumphant progress was marked by the solid construction of roads, bridges, and habitations, and whose fortified camps developed into future cities. The constructive advance of the Italian armies across the Alps is, then, in happy contrast to the destructive advance of many of the armies of the Central Empires. It is also to be noted that the new ammunition factories that have been established in Italy have been built with a view to their easy transformation after the war into workshops from which shall issue the products of peace; the traditional beating of swords into ploughshares and spears into pruning-hooks will have, indeed, peculiar importance here; when the recently created additional motive force required in Italy for the present enormous production of war material shall be employed in the industries of peace, the country's manufacturing capacity will greatly surpass that of the ante-bellum period, and many classes of goods which heretofore have been wholly or largely imported from abroad, to the grave detriment of the Italian balance of trade, will then be manufactured at home. Italy is at present not only producing her own ammunition, but is also furnishing ammunition to France and to Russia; she is supplying France with army automobiles, camions, etc., and is even exporting aeroplanes to the United States.

Sanguineness as to the outcome of the war continues firm in Government circles. With four million well-equipped and well-trained men under arms, and with the full complement of artillery finally massed upon her front, there is no doubt as to Italy's ability, notwithstanding enormous topographical difficulties, to break through the Austrian defence for a long advance into the Italian provinces of Austria in the spring. Italy's struggle is but the resumption of the long half-century of heroic struggle and sacrifice by which the nation was formed and by which it is now destined to be completed. "*A nationality* is an *end*, a mission, a collective *duty* prescribed by God: it is necessary to reach this *end*, to perform this *duty*," wrote Mazzini in 1863; and again, "Nationalities are as invincible as conscience: you can suppress them for a brief time, but you cannot destroy them." If Americans would understand the Italian patriot of to-day, they must return in thought to the period of anti-slavery agitation in the United States, when the love of liberty implied courage and sacrifice, and when the struggle for liberty stamped itself upon the national conscience as forever and everywhere sacred. Mazzini begged American abolitionists in those days "not to forget, while at work for the emancipation of the black race, the millions of white slaves, suffering, struggling, expiring in Italy." "We are fighting," he cried, "the same sacred battle for freedom and the emancipation of the oppressed." The exclamation of Charles Sumner, who shared Mazzini's consciousness of the unity of freedom's cause throughout the world, was typical of the enlightened abolitionist's feelings with regard to Italy: "When will Austria disappear from that beautiful land, to which my heart turns with a constant glow?"

Subsequently the wars of 1859 and 1866 freed the Lombardo-Veneto from Austrian domination and oppression, but the inhabitants of twenty thousand square kilometres of geographical Italy remained, and remain to-day, excluded from the Italian nation. These provinces are not only geographically Italian because they shed their waters into the Adriatic and offer with their mountain barriers a defensible military frontier to Italy, but they are Italian by race, language, history, art, traditions, and sentiment—and they have remained Italian in spite of the most abominable refinements of Austrian cunning and cruelty to denationalize and Teutonize them.

In America the present war of Italy, fought for the completion of national unity, should be regarded with peculiar interest and sympathy. In the course of the American Civil War Lincoln wrote: "At no stage in this unhappy fraternal war in which we are only endeavoring to save and strengthen the foundations of our national unity has the King or the people of Italy faltered in addressing to us the language of respect, confidence, and friendship." George P. Marsh, American Minister to Italy, went even further, declaring that there was no country in Europe in which the cause of the American Union met with so warm and hearty a sympathy as in Italy. And Lincoln added: "I pray God to have Italy in his holy keeping, and to vouchsafe to crown with success her noble aspirations."

H. Nelson Gay

Rome, February 26

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A French Newspaper Carlyle

ON February 5 Edouard Drumont died in Paris. Years ago he disappeared from Paris life, all but blind and under constant threat of the final brain-stroke. The newspaper—*La Libre Parole*, "The Free Word," in which no tongues consonant with his own were ever tied—kept his name alive. More real war than that for which he started it has come and only the defunct shadow of its first entity remains.

It is thirty years since Edouard Drumont sounded his trumpet in a book—"La France Juive." In criticism reflecting perhaps its tone, and not at all foreseeing what was really to happen in the permutations and combinations of time, I wrote then: "This book may prove a greater blow to France than Sedan." After all these years, I would hardly retract it now. We who have lived through that time, hearing and seeing with our eyes and our hands handling, must now add if we speak our minds frankly: "France's enfeeblement for years, like a house divided against itself with delusions of many citizens worse than wasting their political energies, dates from the rhetoric of Edouard Drumont."

"Dates from"—and not "is due to"—for he was but one in the long chain of occasional causes. His book, which he followed up with others of equal statistical worth, rested its claim largely on his figures of *la haute banque*. It was the usual worth of statistics in political rhetoric and newspapers. Great banks of France, even as he wrote, under the impulse of Frenchmen by race and breeding and traditional religion, were growing into such a power that his *haute banque juive*, "big Jew bank," was scarcely left its legitimate share in French finance. Doubtless, he could have cited page and line for each of his figures—and so could Zola for his sensational account, in "L'Argent," of the wrecking of a bank by politicians in Government. Zola's case, after both he and Drumont were done for, was used as an accusation in the Humbert affair.

Meanwhile, Drumont had been the occasion of the Dreyfus Case and Zola had transformed it into the Affair which all the world remembers. So far as banking statistics and the drawing of rhetorical conclusions go, both belonged to the same generation—and their manner of thought, if not their politics, is represented in English life by the disciples of Thomas Carlyle, with his "Shooting Niagara" and "veracities" of Frederick the Great. Even his "French Revolution" could win from the sympathetic and scrupulous criticism of Acton only this appreciation—its "impatient verdicts and the poverty of settled facts in the volumes delivered our fathers from thraldom to Burke." The application of such rhetoric to burning French actualities, with Drumont, occasioned the imprisonment of Dreyfus in Devil's Island and, with Zola, caused his release.

Case and Affair have not to be stirred here, for both have entered History with consequences entirely unforeseen by all who took part in either. It is safer, if we wish to judge calmly the polemic methods of the dead, to remember the practical conclusion of saintly, canny Cardinal Guibert on the banking ideas of both Drumont and Zola. The so-called Catholic bank, which Minister of Justice Humbert was accused of breaking in his two weeks' exercise of office, had brought every influence to bear on the venerable Cardinal to induce him to deposit with it the funds of his archbishopric of Paris. To every solicitation and scandalized protest, he contented himself with the gentle answer: "Monsieur Rothschild is a good banker—a good banker."

All these are now dead. Only Drumont lived to see the real war, the great war before which the whole world faints and fails, which triturates impartially Jew and Gentile, Catholic and Protestant and the sons of the Prophet.

All sleep in the swaths when the night is falling.

It must not be concluded that Edouard Drumont was particularly Catholic in thought or action. He accepted and fought the duels which were the first obvious result of his rhetorical and statistical campaign—and duels still involve excommunication in Catholic practice as well as theory. One of these duels was with Arthur Meyer, Israelite editor of the aristocratic *Gaulois* newspaper—and he, in time's whirligig, has since been baptized a Catholic.

In all such campaigns begun and carried on by epileptic discharges of rhetoric, there may be rhymes, but there is too often little or no reason. Nerves and imaginations must be ready beforehand to be stirred by them. A parallel campaign, begun in imitation against French Protestants, did not even succeed in drawing public attention. Yet French Protestants, too, have been welded by the disabilities of past centuries into a peculiar people, not unlike Jews or English and Irish Quakers, and they, too, have—or had when Zola and Drumont were writing—their *haute banque*.

Drumont's identification of French Jews with French Freemasons also fell through, when the test of fact was applied. There had never been 100,000 Jews in France and there were about 25,000 Freemasons. The former were for the most part well-to-do and, as their wont is, caring for their own; but they were little more united in public conduct than Catholics and not nearly so much so as Protestants, in whom the Huguenot is still strong. Freemasons, who are necessarily and irreconcilably anti-Catholic, had on their side political influence among Radicals; but they have never succeeded in any union, and much less in any political monopoly, with Socialists. And it was the Socialist weight thrown into the Parliamentary balance, and not the Freemasons alone nor the Jews at all, which made possible the post-Dreyfus voting of anti-Catholic laws.

This came after the Case had been legally liquidated, but it could not have come without the divisions and animosity of the Affair. And, as Edouard Drumont was a leading occasional cause in both Case and Affair and an aider and abettor of its removal from justice and its continuance in politics, he may rightly receive a place also in the multiple responsibility for the ensuing legislation. And so he, too, is responsible for the unintelligent disfavor into which France fell in the religious opinion of foreign peoples—before this war swept away animosities of life eternal in the tumult of anxiety for life temporal. *All that a man hath will he give for his life*, said Satan, asking leave to tempt holy Job. Edouard Drumont and his kind are neither with Satan nor with the Saints—they are but meddling voices leading those who give ear whither they know not themselves. Religion may have to be defended, but—*non tali auxilio*.

Before the memories of Drumont and Zola and the campaigns they started, in which Dreyfus suffered as a symbol,

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lose their contours in a misty past, another curious memory or two may well be revived. A few still survive of those who met in the first uncertain days in the Paris drawing-room of an English lady, the owner of a once great review. There Bernard Lazare—a pathetic figure who had rubbed shoulders with Anarchists, still in the glamour of their inconsiderate bomb-throwing, and wrote at the same time in the Conservative *Figaro*—explained with a fire not quenched by the consumption undermining him doubts of the legality and sincerity of the first Dreyfus trial—and his own passionate and legitimate desire that his race and religion should be relieved of the stain which Drumont was striving to fix indelibly on them. The chief French Liberal present, a man who later yielded his controversial stand of a lifetime to Socialists because they were essential to triumph in the Affair (it was to be their own political triumph), would only opine at that time—"Nothing can be done!" Bernard Lazare did not live to see the triumph, but without his persevering and unencouraged effort Zola neither would nor could have done what he did much later.

In the later days, among nine thousand nine hundred curious onlookers, I was caught in a "manifestation" of ten thousand in front of Drumont's newspaper office. Napoleon Hayard, "Emperor of Camelots" (street hawkers), gave me the tip as to the other hundred: "Each side pays me five francs a head. Watch me—I am going to lead them now to Drumont's and we shall all shout—*Vive l'Armée!*—and then we shall dash round the corner to Sébastien Faure's Libertarian paper and shout—*A bas l'Armée!*" So they did and next day foreign newspapers headlined Dreyfus riots in Paris.

Such is the human truth, the judicial worth, of Carlyle's rhetoric when it succeeds in politics. As a mere writer, Edouard Drumont might have won a seat in the French Academy, to which he aspired more presumptuously than Zola—but in that neither succeeded.

Paris, March 4 STODDARD DEWEY

Correspondence

THE TRANSLATION OF "DIE POLITIK"

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: English translators of the title of Treitschke's work "Die Politik" generally render it by "Politics." The question is, however, arguable whether this is the nearest equivalent. To us Americans at least the term "politics" conveys a different meaning. We hear men say that they are not interested in politics, or that the saloon ought to be taken out of politics, or that a certain bill has in it too much politics. In such and similar cases the underlying idea is that politics has to do solely with internal affairs and with parties within the state. But Treitschke's outlook is wider, and corresponds very nearly with what we mean when we speak of public policy or of statecraft. For example, our Monroe Doctrine has long been a part of our public policy, and no party has ever taken a stand against it. It is not a political issue. A few days ago a lawyer said to me that he regarded the repeal of a certain statute as against public policy. If he had said that the action was not good politics, he would have meant something quite different: his comment would have been dictated by fears for the supremacy of his party. "Statecraft" means very nearly the same thing as *Politik*, but the term is not in common use. The distinction between the politician and the statesman is much older than the English language. But Treitschke evidently did not have such a distinction in mind. He tries to show the ends at which Prussian statecraft ought to aim. Occasionally the politician is also the statesman, but the combination is rare. If we translate "Die Politik" by "Public Policy," we avoid the ambiguity to which I have just referred.

C. W. SUPER

Athens, O., March 18

"THE LADS OF VERDUN"

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am glad to have an opportunity to come back on the simple little song about *les gars de Verdun* (see *Nation*, August 17, 1916, and January 4, 1917). For purposes of my prose, I transposed the second and third stanzas; but I tried to keep the accent, rhythm, noise, and tune of the Belgian Jean-de-Nivelle or, as they are oftener called since the French Revolution, Cadet-Rousselle verses. I could not get the feminine rhymes, but a hemi-semi-demi quaver will remedy that. From a boy, I have heard such verses in topical songs, from boarding schools to music halls. These on Verdun were signed E. M. (perhaps Emile Moreau) and would blush to find themselves poetry. Yet—and this is my gladness in a sorrowful time—I should like to translate now the refrain, not freely:

Ah! Ah! Ah!—Oui vraiment,
Les gars de Verdun sont épatants!
Ah! Ah! Ah, yes, indeed,
The lads of Verdun are a wonderful breed!

I believed them to be so from a lifetime's experience before this unhappy war—and, behold, the whole world knows it now.

STODDARD DEWEY

Paris, January 30

THE "SOW'S TAIL"

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Students of Shakespeare are indebted to those who bring new information to the interpretation of his writings, as we are to Professor Croll for his interesting suggestion on I Henry IV, II, iv, 133 ff. (*Nation*, February 22, 1917, p. 212). But the interest created by new facts sometimes tempts us away from due consideration of a less tangible element just as important to safe interpretation—a sense of Shakespeare's coherence of thought and the simple aptness of the clear-cut images in his figures.

Professor Croll proposes two emendations in place of Theobald's one, with an admission that even this one is not really necessary; namely, *sow* for *sun*, and *tail* for *tale*. Both are plausible enough so far as spelling goes; though it should be noted that Professor Croll presents no evidence that Shakespeare knew *this* proverb—but only the other form with an application quite different and foreign to the situation. The resulting interpretation is, however, not so plausible. For we miss that ready visualization and idiomatic applicability in the image, which has but a moment on the stage to carry its point. How can one instantaneously visualize the sun shining on a roasting sow, not to mention the exacting topographical requirement imposed by

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the proverb on his beams? The figure is badly out of balance; for, even in the suggested reading the action of the sun in melting the butter is clearly of primary importance, whereas such an image as that proposed would inevitably distract the mind's eye from the impact of the sun's rays and would emphasize the chief cause of the melting heat, the roasting sow. The figurative import of *kiss* and *pitiful-hearted* (whether referred to the sun or to the butter) is then quite lost, for at the middle of the sentence it suddenly appears that Titan's part is purely incidental, being obliterated by a dominating visual image of incongruous import (which must, one would think, have elicited a retaliatory remark from Falstaff). Then the dish is badly in the way of the application and melting of the butter at the tail of the sow in the way suggested by Professor Croll. Moreover, one is tempted to complain, with the Second Citizen to Menenius, "The sweet tail! Why the sweet tail?" Such a figure would be badly enough loaded with secondary visual features without requiring also a response from the gastronomic sense. Indeed, there would be far greater danger that such an image would strike Falstaff and the rest of us as one of the Prince's most *un*savory similes.

The two outstanding visual elements in the actual scene are Falstaff's huge red face and the disappearing sack. In the reading of the Cambridge text, I confess I fail to find any obscurity. It seems simple and clear. Titan, the god, is kissing an earthly creature—an idea familiar enough—and the creature is melting at his sweet tale of love to her. Behold that combination! It would seem, however, that one must admit the perfect fitness of Theobald's change of *Titan* to *butter*. The earthly creature, rather than the god, is so soft-hearted that she melts at the sun's caresses. And in view of the common tendency to this sort of error of repetition in copying or setting up, this emendation requires less faith of us than any of the others. The image then has that clear-cut visual simplicity and that quick applicability required by the rapid succession of humorous attacks and repulses that must have each only its brief moment for stage presentation.

JOHN S. KENYON

Hiram, O., March 2

LIBRARY CATALOGUES

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: President Faunce of Brown University, in his latest annual report, raises the question of the value of the modern library catalogue; he finds that "a vast amount of time and labor is now going into the process of making cards and filling drawers with a multitude of cross references—time and labor which we all wish could be devoted to the education of our students and their introduction into the world of books." He complains that "in spite of the use of the cards of the Congressional Library, all our college libraries are constantly cataloguing the same books, duplicating one another." Instead of a mere catalogue of book titles, "a list in which books authoritative and trivial, significant and meaningless, good, bad, and indifferent, stand on equal footing," President Faunce desires "a *catalogue raisonné*, giving some critical estimate of the value and significance of each book." And he winds up with saying that the problem does not affect libraries alone: "It is a problem common to all high and noble enterprise—the question as to whether our elaborately constructed mechanism is the friend or the foe of the life it is intended to serve." "Is it true," he asks, "as some librarians affirm, that the modern catalogue is a veil between the library and its readers?"

This problem is one which the writer, as chairman of the Committee on Costs and Methods of Cataloguing of the American Library Association, has had occasion to consider in at least some of its aspects. That the cards printed by the Library of Congress do not suffice to serve the needs of all libraries, especially not the college and university libraries, is a well-known fact, and there is only one way out of that difficulty, namely, the establishment of a coöperative catalogue bureau which would supplement the work done by the Library of Congress. The American Library Institute is understood as having under consideration a general plan of coöperation between the libraries of learning, in which one would suppose that a coöperative catalogue bureau might find a place. Such a bureau could not work with any advantage except in conjunction with a coöperative purchasing, or at least distributing, centre, where the books for which the Library of Congress cannot supply cards could be catalogued before they are sent on to their destinations.

The question of a *catalogue raisonné* is a pretty large one and one that hardly can be solved except at very heavy expense, and even then probably not to everybody's satisfaction. The personal bias, the knowledge, and the point of view of the annotator will always play their part and result in statements that might be strongly objected to by users of the catalogue. There is another way, however, to avoid having cards for trivial, insignificant, and bad books in the catalogues of college and university libraries, and that is to exercise the critical faculty before admitting such books to the shelves of the library. There is no reason why an educational library should admit to its shelves books that have no educational value. It is true enough that catalogue cards, even those printed by the Library of Congress, might contain more information about the scope and contents of the books, even at the expense of some of the bibliographical niceties that are now given with much minuteness for all sorts of books. Such details are, of course, essential in the case of books which have some bibliographical significance, or whose make-up is in any way puzzling or complicated. Ordinary books, that have no such significance of problems, might well be catalogued with less detail, if the uniformity of all bibliographical descriptions be thought unnecessary. In the place of these details, or together with them, there should be, for every book whose scope, contents, or bias is not plain from its title, notes telling of these features. In most cases a simple list of the contents of the book will suffice, but where this will not suffice, a descriptive note should be given. Such notes should state the point of view of the writer, whether he is for or against the question discussed by him, whether he, on account of his profession or other predilections, may be thought to write with some particular bias. It may even be proper to state whether the book is the result of original research, or a mere compilation, or a work of a popular character. But the annotator should not go farther; he should not take unto himself the duties of the critic. The views of a critic may be exposed to shocks and somersaults of various kinds, but a catalogue card cannot be reprinted every time the point of view of the learned changes front. However, even as library catalogues are at the present time, I think they fulfil well

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enough their function: to disclose to their users what books on a certain subject or by a certain author they might find in the library. That is really as far as a library catalogue can go. If "some librarians" say that the catalogue is "a veil between the library and its readers," is it so sure that these librarians know what they are talking about or have given the matter careful and unbiassed consideration?

AKSEL G. S. JOSEPHSON

The John Crerar Library, Chicago, March 1

BOOKS

Mr. Russell's Confession of Faith

Why Men Fight. By Bertrand Russell. New York: The Century Co. $1.50 net.

"THE principal effect [of most pacifist talk] on 'the average man' has been to produce the impression that the friends of peace are ninnies, and to make him smile over the earnestness with which everybody looks on his own wars as holy and inevitable, and his neighbors' wars as unnecessary and wicked. Any practical movement to put an end to war must begin far away from the battlefield and its horror. It must take up and deal with the various influences, social and political, which create and perpetuate the state of mind which makes people ready to fight."

These sentences are taken, not from the latest book on the international situation in 1917, but from an article by Edwin L. Godkin in the *Nation*, written during the Franco-Prussian War. Their perennial freshness is due to their profound wisdom. And the suggestion which they make has been carried out literally in Mr. Bertrand Russell's latest work. In no other war book or peace book known to the present reviewer is there to be found so thoroughgoing an investigation of "the various influences, social and political," which explain why men fight. We have here, in fact, the whole social and political and educational philosophy of the author.

The ultimate origin of the present war is not, in Mr. Russell's opinion, to be sought in the wickedness of the Germans nor in the ambitions of governments, but in certain instincts and impulses inherent in human nature. The remedy for war, therefore, is not (as many pacifists think) to be found primarily in the subjection of impulse to reason, but in "a positive life of impulses and passions antagonistic to those that lead to war." The life of impulse needs to be guided and developed, not to be suppressed. Impulses may be divided into those that make for life and those that make for death. The war instincts, of course, belong to the former, while the three most important of the latter are love, the instinct of constructiveness, and the joy of life. Under proper conditions these latter might be so developed as to counterbalance the fighting instincts, but as a fact our conventional conceptions and our repressive institutions are such that there is little chance for the full and free development of individuality and its finer impulses.

The first institution that Mr. Russell singles out as in need of radical reform is naturally the state, with its correlative emotion of patriotism.

> The State has one purpose which is on the whole good, namely, the substitution of law for force in the relations of men. But this purpose can only be fully achieved by a world-State, without which international relations cannot be made subject to law. And although law is better than force, law is still not the best way of settling disputes. Law is too static, too much on the side of what is decaying, too little on the side of what is growing. So long as law is in theory supreme, it will have to be tempered, from time to time, by internal revolution and external war. These can only be prevented by perpetual readiness to alter the law in accordance with the present balance of forces. If this is not done, the motives for appealing to force will sooner or later become irresistible. A world-State or federation of States, if it is to be successful, will have to decide questions, not by the legal maxims which would be applied by the Hague tribunal, but as far as possible in the same sense in which they would be decided by war. The function of authority should be to render the appeal to force unnecessary, not to give decisions contrary to those which would be reached by force.

The modern monster state tends also to hamper the growth of the individual by producing in him a paralyzing sense of helplessness. This evil might to a considerable extent be avoided by reducing the functions of the state and, in this respect, following out the suggestions not of socialism but of syndicalism. All the proper purposes of the state as it is at present, with the exception of the preservation of order, ought so far as possible to be taken over by voluntary and independent organizations, such as trade unions, coöperative societies, professions, universities, and the like; for under such a system liberty and opportunity for initiative and for individual growth have at least a chance.

Besides reforming the state we need to reform the institution of property. The worship of money has always been a leading cause of decreasing vitality, but never has it been so destructive as when combined with our present industrial system. Under it, work has become wearisome, intense, and mechanical, giving to most men no vent for the instinct of creativeness, and robbing them of much of the joy of life. "The chief test of an economic system is not whether it makes men prosperous, or whether it secures distributive justice, but whether it leaves men's instinctive growth unimpeded. To achieve this purpose, there are two main conditions which it should fulfil: it should not cramp men's private affections, and it should give the greatest possible outlet to the impulse of creation." The best promise for such a system, in Mr. Russell's opinion, is to be found in a combination of the coöperative movement and syndicalism, to be supplemented by some special adjustments which shall increase the hours and means of recreation and distribute more fairly the work that is mere drudgery.

In addition to these changes, Mr. Russell would also introduce radical modifications in educational methods and in the institution of marriage. The weakness of most contemporary methods of education is that they try to turn out certain approved types—such as orthodox Christians or "good citizens." "If the children themselves were considered, education would not aim at making them belong to this party or that, but at enabling them to choose intelligently between the parties: it would aim at making them able to think, not at making them think what their teachers think." As for marriage, the new system, according to Mr. Russell, "must be based upon the fact that to produce children is a service to the state, and ought not to expose parents to heavy pecuniary penalties. It will have to recognize that neither the law nor public opinion should concern itself with the private relations of men and women, except where chil-

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dren are concerned. It ought to remove the inducements to make relations clandestine and childless. It ought to admit that, although lifelong monogamy is best when it is successful, the increasing complexity of our needs makes it increasingly often a failure for which divorce is the best preventive."

What can we do to bring about the new order of things? Mr. Russell has more confidence in the ultimate power of reason and love than have most philosophic writers, even though he leaves his conclusions in the end a little vague. "The first thing we have to do," he answers, "is to be clear in our own minds as to the kind of life we think good and the kind of change that we desire in the world. . . . The power of thought, in the long run, is greater than any other human power. Those who have the ability to think and the imagination to think in accordance with men's needs are likely to achieve the good they aim at sooner or later, though probably not while they are still alive." "What we have to do practically is different for each one of us according to our capacities and opportunities. But if we have the life of the spirit within us, what we must do and what we must avoid will become apparent to us. By contact with what is eternal, by devoting our life to bringing something of the divine into this troubled world, we can make our own lives creative even now, even in the midst of the cruelty and strife and hatred that surround us."

Studies of Past and Present

Thorgils. By Maurice Hewlett. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Taming of Calinga. By C. L. Carlsen. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The White People. By Frances Hodgson Burnett. New York: Harper & Bros.

The Wave. By Algernon Blackwood. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

A Soldier of Life. By Hugh de Sélincourt. New York: The Macmillan Co.

ON the surface Mr. Hewlett is the most versatile of modern story-tellers. Italy or Switzerland or Iceland, England of the great Richard or of the fourth or the latest George—we know how readily he shifts from any of these scenes to any other. If we have anywhere found him lacking, if his glamour has anywhere worn thin, it has been in his tales of modern life, with their Lancelots and their Bendishes, their romantic adventurers and troubadours, so uneasily conscious of the incongruous modern garb. Yet the other day, in "Love and Lucy," he succeeded in casting off that awkwardness and easily as well as masterfully gave romance a modern body and dress. For that is all it amounts to: his substance is always romance; and it is mediæval romance, whether of voluptuous Italy or swashbuckling Provence or the stark northland. Lucy's spouse is a troubadour unexpectedly emerging, for Lucy's sake, from the shell of a cold and egoistic Briton of the twentieth century. And Lucy herself, beneath her meek and responsive surface, is the fair lady who wishes to be fought for and who is fated to be the guerdon of the stronger champion. On the other hand, Mr. Hewlett's mediævalism is in water-tight compartments; he is in no danger of confounding troubadour and skald or swashbuckler and viking. And, in our opinion, it is the viking who inspires him, however the swashbuckler, with his picturesqueness, may excite him. We greatly prefer "Frey and His Wife" and "Thorgils" to "Brazenhead the Great" or "The Song of Renny." The tale of Thorgils might fitly have been called "The Little Saga." It is a story of far greater pith and force than "Frey and His Wife," which, after all, was based upon a rather extravagant fancy. Its style is simple to austerity, untouched by the conscious archaism of Mr. Hewlett's earlier work or of William Morris's many-threaded tapestries. Thorgils is the strong forthright hero of Northern romance, without fear and without guile, destined to suffer greatly from the guile of man and of nature, destined also in his noble simplicity to hold his own until the end: a man of his time and of all time, as the true epic hero must be. This kind of story-telling offers a grateful means of escape from the complexity of "life as it lives us," from the intellectual and moral confusions of the present, to the simple sooth of human character and conduct in the old time.

But primitive virtue did not vanish with our forefathers. There is much of it in the savage hero of "The Taming of Calinga." Calinga is the young chief of an isolated hill tribe of Philippine head-hunters. In his veins is the blood of a far-off adventurer from China, who had long ago been robbed of his conquest of the Island Empire and driven to the fastnesses of the hills, by a strange race held in fearful tradition as the "Green Devils, who carry Magic Sticks that stab from afar." Against them the old chief, dying, cautions Calinga, giving him as a talisman and an object of worship a little idol inscribed with Chinese characters, the sole relic of the exiled founder of the tribe. By tribal custom the young warrior who would win a mate must go forth among the Valley People at the time of the blooming of the Fire-Tree and bring home a fitting trophy of human heads to lay at the feet of his beloved. Calinga loves the Comeliest Maid of the tribe, and in due time sets out upon his strange quest. He does not fail of worthy trophies, but hunting once too often he falls into the hands of the Green Devils. In a little community ruled by degenerate Spaniards and half-breeds he is brutally enslaved and later tamed by the gentler influences of a good priest and a daughter of the Valley People. The Padre wins him from the worship of his idol to that of the mutilated God of the Christians, he marries the girl, and for a time appears to be freed from his savage inheritance. But by degrees the hopeless ignobility and corruption of this Christian civilization is brought cruelly home to him. It all comes to a head at the moment when his young wife dies, and when the Comeliest Maid, who has at last ventured everything to find him, is brought a captive to the village. In an instant he reverts to the tribal standards, takes dreadful vengeance upon the betrayers of his soul, and escapes, with his natural mate beside him, back to the hills and the wild and cruel but not ignoble life of his fathers. It is a tale not only of novel setting and substance, but of fresh quality; and, as with "Thorgils," the theme to which it gives a local habitation has its meaning for all times and places.

In "The Wave" Mr. Blackwood again represents a fusion of past and present through reincarnation. It is a study of direct conflict between paganism and Christian civilization in the latest embodiment of certain deathless protagonists. Similar materials were employed in "Julius Le Vallon," but there, it may be recalled, paganism conquered in the end, or at least refused to be conquered. The past was too much for the present, and the ineffable and rather

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annoying Julius had to pay the penalty of his subliminal daring. The persons of this story are more human, the action is less in the air, though none too close to the ground for comfort. Here, as in "Julius Le Vallon," is a recurrent triangular experience. In ancient Egypt two men have desired one woman: in the end the worthier has been defrauded by his rival, with vaguely dreadful results. Ages afterwards, the three happen to be reëmbodied at the same time and place, in the England of to-day. The men are cousins, one a solid fellow with a career, the other a brilliant trifler and experimenter with life. Strangely enough, it is the solid fellow who is haunted from childhood by intimations of the past. They are symbolized for his consciousness—he seems almost deficient in imagination—by the form of a Wave, menacing himself and two others, one a woman. Her he has early recognized in a girlish acquaintance, and he has perceived in her an unspoken perception of the bond between them. She goes out of his youthful life almost at once, however, marries a Polish prince, and they are both on the verge of middle life when they meet again by chance in Switzerland. And here the brilliant cousin, whom neither of the others quite recognizes as the historic third, comes in with his fatal charm. By an easy device the three are transplanted to Egypt, the scene of their old drama, and there the magic begins to work: the woman, loving our solid fellow with the woman in her, is drawn to the brilliant youth by the female in her. There ensues much torment for everybody concerned, to be ended, after too-long delay, by a scene in which the mysterious Wave takes physical form once more, but fails to overwhelm its ancient victims. The malign member of the trio has, in that incident, turned beneficent, and the spell breaks. Exit the ex-villain, instant rapprochement of the destined mates, curtain. The most interesting of these figures, by all odds, is Tony, the unconscious instrument of evil, a species of faun, soulless but not vicious, and a very charming gentleman withal. Virtue triumphant in the engineering prig is rather tedious, and the two-natured lady is none too "convincing" a bone of contention.

"The White People" of Mrs. Burnett is also a tale of past and present—as embodied in the psychic experience of a Scottish maiden with the gift of "second sight." She is of course a maiden of high degree and a notable heiress. The child of impassioned wedlock, she is orphaned in infancy and brought up by two faithful retainers in the seclusion of her Highland castle. Like the chief figure in "The Wave," she is a rather commonplace person but for her single uncommon gift. This she early displays by visions of the past which her guardians do not explain to her for fear of unhinging her reason. She has one peculiar hallucination or perception, of a race of "white people" whom she takes quite simply and literally as set apart from common humanity and yet as perfectly human. These are the spirits, made visible to her alone, of the beloved dead, whose presences linger, longing to give comfort and reassurance, about those who grieve for them without hope. Not until she is about to lose the earthly companionship of the man to whom she has given her heart does she come to understand all this. Understanding does not rob her of her gift: it serves to keep for her a lifelong sense of communion with the mate who is presently taken from her in the body. Mrs. Burnett is always a sentimentalist, but in this instance develops a difficult theme with a fair measure of restraint.

Whether certain experiences in "A Soldier of Life" are to be rated as belonging to hallucination or to psychic perception is left in doubt by the story-teller. It is a strange book, very much of the hour, and yet of more than merely local or temporal bearing—and yet again not clearly achieving universal significance. The central figure is a British soldier who is invalided home after months in the trenches. The ordeal has left him crippled in mind and soul as well as in body. No sense of heroic achievement supports him. Trench life has filled him with loathing for war, he sees no meaning in it, or, at the moment, in anything else. The sights and sounds and smells of the charnel-house haunt him; no faith remains to him, in God or man. At home he finds himself smothered in an atmosphere of feminine adulation, which only increases his fierce contempt for life. A familiar, whom we take to be a subliminal self, begins to haunt him, trying to rouse his spirit to its old aspirations. But he recoils from this as a new form of torture, and seeks refuge in a cult of common-sense, a pursuit of the ordinary thing, including the refuge of marriage with a commonplace "sweet girl." From this form of death-in-life he is eventually rescued by another woman who, to tell the truth, is a good deal of a bore. She fairly lectures him into the way of salvation, a spiritual Mrs. Caudle. We cannot congratulate him very heartily upon being saved for her uses, and we note with misgivings that the subliminal familiar has faded into nothingness at her approach. Whatever weakness the book may have as a story, however, it throws raw light, in its picture of the moral and spiritual disintegration which war may bring to the unhappy warrior, upon a common horror which the belligerent world, waving its flags and chorusing its mottoes, chooses to leave in darkness.

Trade with South America

Exporting to Latin America. By Ernst B. Filsinger. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $3 net.

THE easy-going title of Mr. Filsinger's admirable work gives but a scant idea of the thoroughness with which he describes the problems of this important subject. These problems are in many ways unique. The Latin American importer is exacting, the customs laws of his country are likely to be still more exacting, and the difficulties arising from unstable exchange cap the certain doom of the rash North American who embarks on Latin American trade without expert advice and generous caution. Mr. Filsinger, who is the consul of Costa Rica and Ecuador in St. Louis, and was formerly president and commissioner to Latin America of the Latin American Foreign Trade Association, knows his field theoretically and practically. In setting forth his knowledge for the benefit of the American exporter, or prospective exporter, he has in fact written a condensed encyclopædia of Latin American trade which commands respect and close attention.

Mr. Filsinger very properly puts first emphasis upon the character and prejudices of the Latin American importer. The Latin American has certain definite ideas of how one should do business. He is prone to lay great stress upon the social side of business relations and to resent the customary brusqueness of the North American trader. If he has office dealings with the representative of a great foreign house, he wishes to meet that representative also at

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his club. He appreciates the courtesy of a personal letter and is all the more amiable in making purchases if a firm or its agent remembers family anniversaries by a post-card or similar attention. Above all does this Latin American resent any of those high-handed methods of "substitution" by which firms occasionally seek to supply goods other than those ordered. He orders what he wants, after careful study, and wishes to receive nothing else. As he is the backbone of our exporting system, our merchants must determine at the outset to cater scrupulously to his whims or else to fish in other waters.

Next, Mr. Filsinger calls attention to the gross blunder of dealing with Latin America as a block of homogeneous countries, with similar tastes, strong points and weaknesses. He outlines, for purposes of trade, six large divisions, using as a criterion the general political conditions in each country, the organization of the banking systems, and the advancement along commercial lines. In the first group he places Cuba, Mexico, Panama, and Porto Rico. In these countries "business is done practically as it is in the United States, upon open credit. The American manufacturer is accustomed to deal direct with the importer." In group two he places Haiti and Santo Domingo, both being conspicuously under American influences. Group three includes the countries of northern South America, Colombia, Venezuela, and Ecuador. In this field the exporting houses of New York play an important rôle because of the notable lack of banking facilities, and the necessity for unusual arrangements of credit. The west coast countries form the fourth group, Chili, Peru, and Bolivia. "These countries possess well-organized banking systems which represent both foreign and local capital." Here there is also a notable preponderance of trade with European nations. The countries making up the fifth group, Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, and Uruguay, "represent the very highest development of commercial enterprise." Here, too, "specializing is commonly practiced, and the importer is very seldom an exporter. The merchants and manufacturers are in direct touch with the markets of the world and by cable follow the fluctuations of the commodity costs. It is in these republics that direct trade relations, when properly managed, can be productive of greatest results." The sixth group comprises the countries of Central America, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Salvador. Here Costa Rica stands out conspicuously as a stable, well-ordered republic, with sound currency and a highly developed banking system. The other countries have a less favorable reputation, but their geographical position inevitably throws them together for purposes of foreign trade.

The rest of the book is devoted to an exhaustive explanation of all the elements entering into export trade with these various groups. Mr. Filsinger touches particularly on the influence of competition, foreign and domestic; on the adaptability of various markets; on the difference between European and American export methods; on the means of obtaining information on conditions of exporting, and on the kind of education and training best adapted to prepare one for this sort of trade. He also analyzes the methods of building up the export business, touching on the respective functions of the export commission houses and export agents; on direct sales through local and general agents, travelling salesmen, correspondence, and through advertising; and on the organization of an export department with a special manager. He then devotes some space to practical details such as proper packing for shipments to Latin America, methods of forwarding, the handling of freight at seaports, the basis of ocean freight rates, and shipping routes and the laws affecting shipping, also the preparation of shipping documents, including consular invoices, railway and ocean bills of lading, and the details of marine insurance. And he sums up all these details in relation to the complicated tariff and customs regulations in each of the Latin American republics. Not the least interesting part of his book discusses the effect of the Federal Reserve act and the Federal Trade Commission on the whole export problem.

Of unusual practical value is the appendix. This contains, besides other important information, a detailed description of each of the Latin American countries, including language, newspapers, currency, with American equivalents, weights and measures, postage, location, area, and physical characteristics, population, purchasing power, railways and transportation, resources, industries, mines, principal cities, best methods of canvassing the country and the articles most needed. In another part of the appendix he gives the typical advertising rates in Latin American export journals, the principal directories of the Latin American republics, and the principal banks of the large cities. Further information on parcel-post rates and mail schedules from New York, as well as the taxes charged commercial travellers in Latin America, completes the excellence of an appendix that in itself rivals the value of the general text. One might suggest that in a later edition a more clearly systematized presentation of the various questions would render the text somewhat clearer. At present the arrangement of material bewilders the average lay reader and emphasizes the difficulties rather than the opportunities of Latin American trade. An inclination to repeat certain subject matter under different headings also tends to befog rather than clarify the various issues. Yet in spite of these defects of construction, Mr. Filsinger's book, well indexed as it is, should prove of the greatest value, not only to those about to enter Latin American trade, but also to those who have already entered it and have encountered certain obstacles which they have so far been unable to surmount.

Aesthetics Unfolded

The Creative Will. Studies in the Philosophy and the Syntax of Æsthetics. By Willard Huntington Wright. New York: John Lane Co. $1.50 net.

A CASUAL glance at the title of the book before us might lead one to think it to be a treatise on Metaphysics, somewhat after the manner of Bergson. The subtitle perhaps corrects this impression, but leaves in its place the notion that the author intends to lay before his readers a systematic philosophical theory of æsthetics. Indeed, if we read the publisher's announcement on the slip cover which tells us that the book is "one of the most important contributions to the philosophy and the science of æsthetics which has appeared in any language," we are led to hope that, as the *Forum* tells us, we are in the presence of "America's First Æsthetician."

All things considered, then, it appears to be the duty of the critic to take Mr. Wright quite seriously, though perhaps not so seriously as his publisher takes him. Indeed,

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we are encouraged to high hopes if, in turning the pages of the book, we by chance hit upon what we may speak of as Aphorism 215, and note the author's remark that in the hands of the critic of the past the "true significance" of art "has become obfuscated in a mass of rhetorical irrelevancies"; and we are further stimulated when we observe his opinion that the purpose of "true criticism" is "to clarify and explain" (p. 257). Our hope is rather quickly dampened, however, when we find the very first paragraph of the book reading as follows:

> The symbol (in the sense of philosophic analogy) of æsthetic truth, like the symbol of all knowledge, is the human body. The deeper facts of art and the deeper facts of life (the two being synonymous) can be tested by the forces, construction, poise, plasticity, needs, laws, reactions, harmonies, growth, forms, and mechanism of the body. The body is the microcosmos of all life; and art, in all its manifestations, is, in its final analysis, an interpretation of the laws of bodily rhythm and movement.

And discouragement is almost complete when, turning forward two pages, we find the following cryptic saying:

> All art, like life, falls into either the masculine or feminine category. In order to bring about the greatest art the form and order (which constitute the masculine side) must predominate. Objective ornament and external beauty (the feminine side) must be only the inspiration to creation. . . . The desire to create is feminine; the ability, masculine.

If then we are led to turn again to pp. 253 ff. to verify the words first quoted, we note the further statement on p. 257: "He (the true critic) should be superior to his own tastes and prejudices, capable of overriding his personal predilections." This surely is sound teaching which the author himself may well be expected to follow. But here again we are doomed to disappointment, as may be indicated by a few dogmatic statements taken at random: "That music of an opera, whose merit makes one forget the opera, is good music; . . . it ceases to be anything but opera music, and hence bad music" (p. 154). "Since the death of Michelangelo there has been no progress made in sculpture" (p. 156). "Debussy, with his aversion for analytical precision, is a musician of mere trivial novelty" (p. 211). "The 'art' of the drama—that bourgeois amusement" (p. 245). "Velasquez, Raphael, and Manet have . . . usurped the places which, by true æsthetic standards, belong to Goya, Giorgione, and Cézanne" (p. 233). Cézanne indeed is held to be the most profound of artists (p. 275), being the exponent of a quite new art of color, in which our author finds the only basis for optimism in regard to the art of the future; for, on the whole, he takes a very pessimistic view of all of modern art up to present moment of enlightenment due to the insight of a few great men like this somewhat startling painter. He overlooks altogether the fact that the present-day revolt, which he represents, is a mere recrudescence of the Romantic movement of Rousseau's time, which was without question but a specially significant example of rebellions against rigidity of tradition that have been recurrent since the beginnings of time.

Having thus brought ourselves into touch with our author's general mental attitude, and with his temporal perspective, if we may so speak, we turn with interest to a search for the basic æsthetic theory which he presents to us, and which we are led to believe must be new and enlightening. Then we discover that he joins the ranks of the Formalists who have flourished so abundantly since the time of Herbart; although he gives no indication to his reader that his general position here is that of a follower rather than of a leader. This may be because he feels that he has struck upon the real formal characteristics common to all the arts for which his predecessors have vainly searched. "Eventually," he tells us, "art will be recognized as the form mould from which both science and philosophy will take shape" (p. 81); and again (p. 27): "Every enduring quality in great art . . . can be explained by the laws of form and organization." But when we search in his pages for an expression of these "laws" we find but the vaguest of statements, such as "the laws of poise, balance, and plasticity" (p. 182); backed up by the most questionable of analogies between the diverse arts (cf., e. g., pp. 96 and 97 ff.). The reader may possibly gain some comprehension of the view our author takes if we quote in full his Aphorism 69, the meaning of which the reviewer finds difficulty in appreciating:

> Form, in the artistic sense, has four interpretations. First, it exhibits itself as shallow imitation in painting, as reportorial realism in literature, and as simple tune in music. (Sorolla, Zola, and Rubinstein make use of this type of form.) Secondly, it contains qualities of solidity and competent construction such as are found in the paintings of Velasquez, the novels of Tourguénieff and the music of Liszt. Thirdly, it shows signs of having been arbitrarily arranged for the purpose of volumnear accentuation (Poussin, George Moore, and Wagner represent this development of form). Last, form reveals itself, not as an objective thing, but as an abstract phenomenon capable of giving the sensation of palpability. All great art—the art of Rubens and Michelangelo, Balzac and Flaubert, Bach and Beethoven—falls under this final interpretation.

The book is not without its sound teachings; as, for instance, in parts of Aphorisms 27, 138, 150, and 179; but it also contains a number of misleading statements which point to a lack of historical research on the part of the author. Thus we are told that "Art began as imitation, then progressed to pure decoration" (p. 40); music was the first art to become abstract (p. 105); and his words on p. 147 indicate that he thinks rhyme to have been one of the earliest characteristics of poetry, and one that "has clung to poetry to the present day," . . . although "the idea of rhyme as the sole harmony of musical composition" (whatever that may mean) "has not existed since the Greeks before Pythagoras."

No one can fail to discover that Mr. Wright is in dead earnest; but, after reading his book carefully, we cannot advise the public to take him too seriously at the present stage of his development.

The Arts of Russia

The Russian Arts. By Rosa Newmarch. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. Illustrated. $2 net.

The Russian School of Painting. By Alexander Benois. With an introduction by Christian Brinton, and 32 plates. New York: Alfred A. Knopf. $4 net.

THE two books in a manner supplement each other. The first gives a synoptical account of all the arts of Russia from the beginnings of Christianity; the second is chiefly critical and devotes itself to the comparatively recent developments of painting. To one who approaches the arts of of Russia without political preconceptions, the most interesting and significant period is the earliest. In the fan-

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tastic developments from Byzantine domed architecture, in the free and picturesque use of wood for monumental construction, in the adaptations of Byzantine motives in miniatured MSS., ikons, and frescoes we find what is most idiomatic on Russian soil. We regret accordingly that Rosa Newmarch has not dwelt more at length upon the beginnings and, in particular, that the iconographic stage of the art has not been sufficiently represented by illustrations. Still a lover of modern Russia was bound to emphasize the proletarian and humanitarian movements of the last century, and in general the book is adequate as a first sketch.

For more than three centuries Russian art has suffered acutely from mal-assimilation of European tendencies. It is interesting to recall that Russian painting is just about as new or as old as English painting. Neither art has attained great altitudes, but English painting readily assumed a European character. In both cases painting of a particular type was imposed on the nation by royal influence. It was here that eclecticism of the English was favorable to a flexible development. The Tudors and Stuarts took up indifferently with Dutch, Flemish, Italian, and Italianate masters. England never yielded wholly to pseudo-classicism and the *école galante*, but went very far in imitation of whatever seemed excellent.

Russia, on the contrary, has evinced a kind of Slavic recalcitrancy with a spasmodic tendency towards imitation. Nothing is more symptomatic than the ikons of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, stubbornly archaic in technic, but pieced together or directly imitated from Western European prints. To-day we see the same adjustment in a more refined aspect in M. Nesterov's overpraised combination of the landscape of Bastien Lepage with the figures of the ikons.

Generally speaking, as Benois very candidly points out, Russian painting has been on a plane above or below taste. Most of us know the art only in the tragic spectacularism of Verestchagin's war pictures, and in the unbridled gusto of the Cossack pictures of Repin. Some of us have heard of the European *début* of Russian painting in Karl Brullov's Last Days of Pompeii, which the aged Walter Scott saw in Italy and declared to be "a complete epic." To-day it looks more like cleverly arranged melodrama. More interesting on the whole than these heroic painters are the realists who pullulated during the liberalism of Alexander I. Convinced proletarians, they dealt searchingly with the pathos and humors of peasant and bourgeois life. To many, as to V. G. Perov and V. G. Makovsky, was granted a penetrating insight into character, but there was scarcely a good painter among them. One and all shared the technical nonchalance of the founder of the school, A. A. Ivanoff. The school was eagerly fostered by the liberals, and Russia has the credit of inaugurating the practice of travelling exhibitions. But the patronage was never one of taste. There was no amateurism to steady the artist. He tended to become a sort of propagandist and special pleader.

Of late years Russia has partaken in the general neo-romantic ferment, and in Vroubel has produced one artist of great and sinister power. Others have followed the later and more tenuous phases of impressionism, or again like Leon Bakst have cleverly galvanized an essentially eclectic art; still others have gone in for a pure symbolism. All this Benois very lucidly treats as decadence—of course in the critical and not in the moral sense. The fact is that since the iconographic stage of painting ceased there has been no coherent art of Russian painting. The nearest approach to it has been the realism of the 1860's and 1870's of which the grandiose pathos of Verestchagin's war canvases is merely the most famous and accomplished phase. It seems likely that any genuine Russian painting will have to be rebuilt on this foundation of proletarianism. The problem is to infuse it with taste. The Dutch achieved the synthesis for a brief moment of liberty and glory. The Russians should some day do as much.

Benois has the merit of treating his subject, while with Russian sympathy, from a European point of view and in the light of European standards. Accordingly, he raises very general issues in æsthetics, touching such matters with a light yet firm grasp. Thus it is one of the most generally interesting art books of recent years, and, barring a few infelicities of transcription and translation, may be read with pleasure and profit even by such as are but slightly concerned with the immediate subject.

"Mine Ease in Mine Inn"

Old Tavern Signs. An Excursion in the History of Fritz Endell. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. $5 net.

THE English term public house implies the important distinction between the private house in which one lives and the opposite in which one eats and drinks, lodges or sojourns for a longer or shorter period. The door of the private house is closed except to the tenant and his guests; but the door of the public house stands open to every one who has the price required for his entertainment. The public house, tavern, inn is among the most ancient of human institutions and has been praised, blamed, sung in every European literature.

Impelled by his artistic admiration of the wrought-iron signs before the inn doors of Southern Germany, Mr. Fritz Endell has made a delectable book to accompany his interesting drawings of them. It has been turned into English with the aid of several American friends, and has been produced with the simplicity and good taste which distinguish the work of the Riverside Press.

"Die I must, but let me die drinking in an inn," sang wicked Bishop Golias; and Shenstone uttered the lament of the homeless, loose-foot rover when he appealed to the wide experience of those who had found their warmest welcome in an inn. If it were not for the date in the imprint and a few scattered allusions, one would almost swear that this book had been composed in the eighteenth century. It seems to be pervaded by the kindly, unworldly sentiment of the vanished Germany of little states, such as Thackeray hardly caricatured in Pumpernickel, and Stevenson made the scene of Prince Otto's adventures. Over all is the atmosphere one feels in the illustrations to Hans Andersen. Nowhere is the modern, scientific spirit. The author begins his study of hospitality, *more majorum*, with the expulsion of Adam and Eve from the Garden of Eden, and makes the obvious comment that, "Our first parents, naturally, could not enjoy the blessings of hospitality." But they have since figured on many a tavern sign. A notable instance occurs in Hogarth's "March to Finchley."

Such a beginning prepares the reader for a leisurely, enjoyable ramble with the author-artist through all ages and divers literatures. From the Golden Age of unlimited hospitality, when stranger was a sacred name, he passes on

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to the sad time when the traveller had to pay for his entertainment. The first inns were scarcely respectable. Rahab, whose house was on the city wall, kept a sort of inn. So did Lalun in Kipling's story. According to Mr. Wells, Russian hotels bear more than slight traces of their ancient origin. Hospitality was enjoined upon all Christians and was practiced by the religious houses throughout Europe in the Age of Faith. The Church is still true to its ancient custom, as Tusitala testifies, when he and Modestine were lodged in the Grande Chartreuse. From the discussion of knightly and popular signs—he is capable of explaining the frequency of the half-moon as a sign to the victory over the Turk at Lepanto—Endell passes on to the references to taverns in Shakespeare and Montaigne, to tavern-signs in art, to artists as sign-painters, to the sign in poetry, to political signs, to the travels of Goethe and of Frederick the Great, to the peculiarities of the English signboard, and finally to the disappearance of this ancient landmark with so much else that is picturesque before the unrelenting march of modern progress. Such a book would not be complete without a moral, and Endell finds the cope-stone for his tower in a Christmas sermon of Dr. Martin Luther.

By the English reader brought up in the admiration of all things German, such a book as this is regarded with a certain wistfulness. The author discusses French and English writers and artists without a hint of national hatred. He discloses glimpses of a Germany once loved, and now only descried dimly across an unfathomable gulf of blood and tears.

Notes

FOR publication next month Doubleday, Page & Company announce "Friend in Feathers," by Gene Stratton Porter; "The Brown Study," by Grace S. Richmond, and "The Man Thou Gavest," by Harriet T. Comstock.

Henry Holt & Company announce the forthcoming publication of "Better Meals for Less Money," by Mary Green.

Among the spring publications of Paul Elder & Company is "Starr King in California," by William Day Simonds.

E. P. Dutton & Company announce for early publication "Chemical Discovery and Invention in the Twentieth Century," by Sir William A. Tilden; "The Village Shield," by Ruth Gaines and Georgiana Willis Read, and "The Golden Arrow," by Mary Webb.

The following volumes will be published by George H. Doran Company on Saturday: "The Wicked John Goode," by Horace W. Scandlin; "Italy and the War," by Jacques Bainville, translated by Bernard Miall; "Hurrah and Hallelujah," by J. H. Bang; "Pan-Germanism versus Christendom," by M. Emile Prum; "Lilla," by Mrs. Belloc Lowndes; "The Wonder," by J. D. Beresford; "Up the Hill and Over," by Isabel Ecclestone Mackay; "Faithful Stewardship," by the late Father Stanton; "Sunday Story Hour," by Laura E. Cragin, and three volumes in the Collectors' Pocket series, *viz.*, "Collecting Old Glass," by Sir James H. Yoxall; "Collecting Old Miniatures," by the same, and "Collecting Old Lustre Ware," by W. Bosanko.

NEW and forthcoming publications of the University of Chicago Press are as follows: "Six Lectures on Architecture," the Art Institute of Chicago; "Truancy and Non-Attendance in the Chicago Schools," by Edith Abbott and Sophonisba Breckinridge; "A Chemical Sign of Life," by Shiro Tashiro; "Animal Micrology" (revised edition), by Michael F. Guyer; "The Development of the Young People's Movement," by Frank Otis Erb; "Principles of Banking," by Harold G. Moulton; "Studies in Stichomythia," by J. Leonard Hancock; "Unfair Competition," by William H. S. Stevens; "Standards of American Legislation," by Ernest Freund; "An Experimental Study in the Psychology of Reading," by William Anton Schmidt; "The Biology of Twins," by Horatio Hackett Newman; "Finite Collineation Groups," by Hans F. Blichfeldt; "Household Manufacturers in the United States," by Rolla M. Tryon; "Parallaxes of 47 Stars," by Frederick Slocum and Alfred Mitchell; "Food Poisoning," by Edwin O. Jordan; "Recreation and the Church," by Herbert Wright Gates; "The Religions of the World," by George A. Barton; "History of the Australian Ballot in the United States," by Elden C. Evans; "Plant Anatomy," by E. C. Jeffrey; "The Electron: Its Isolation and Measurement and the Determination of Some of Its Properties," by Robert A. Millikan.

PERHAPS because it is the last read, perhaps because it is intrinsically the most entertaining, at any rate we seem to have enjoyed J. B. Firth's "Nottinghamshire" (Macmillan; $2) best of all the series of Highways and Byways with which we are familiar—though all have been good. Mr. Firth had, of course, an exceptionally rich field. Here is the interesting city of Nottingham; here is Byron's Newstead, with its literary and romantic fascination; the Dukeries, replete with historical associations of all sorts; Southwell with its minster and ecclesiastical memories, and these are but the beginning. The ways are so crowded with human interest that some readers may think Mr. Firth has been tempted to neglect the descriptive touches of nature that make so much of the charm in certain other volumes of the series. To our taste the omission is more than compensated by the abundance of historical and biographical anecdote. Mr. Firth has gone far and wide for his sources; besides the obvious personages of history he has revivified a whole host of delightful and whimsical characters; the book is crammed with information, yet is written with an ease and grace that any novelist might envy.

THE Wayfarer's Library of Messrs. E. P. Dutton & Co. is extraordinarily well made for the price (50 cents), and the volumes so far issued have been well chosen. The latest addition is "The Brontës and Their Circle," by Clement Shorter. As this entertaining volume, made up of Brontë letters with brief connecting passages by the editor, was published so long ago as 1896, there is no need to criticise it now. We note that Mr. Shorter has included Charlotte Brontë's letters to M. Heger, which created a sensation when first printed in the *Times*, in 1913.

MR. J. EDWARD MEEKER'S "Life and Poetry of James Thomson (B. V.)," published by the Yale University Press ($1.75), has the considerable merit of brevity and is written in a style perfectly clear though quite lacking in distinction. It brings out no new facts of the poet's life, and, so far as mere biography goes, will not replace the works already published. Its peculiarity is in the plan of stringing together the events of Thomson's life with abun-

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dant quotations from his poems. Tastes will differ in regard to this manner of biography. Those who like it will here get what they desire. We confess some impatience with the long expositions of poems which invariably attend performances of this sort. Why should any one care to read a verbose paraphrase of the "City of Dreadful Night," for instance, when the poem itself is ours for the asking? Nor can it be said that the critical parts of Mr. Meeker's commentary rise much above the commonplace. To return to our starting point, the chief merit of the book is its brevity and clearness. It may introduce a few readers to a unique poet, who can never be popular, but will always exert a fascination upon a certain type of mind.

APPROPRIATE in title and well written is Mr. Edward Eyre Hunt's account of his experiences at the beginning of the war and as American delegate of the Commission for relief in Belgium in charge of the Province of Antwerp ("War Bread"; Holt; $2 net). Mr. Hunt took passage for Rotterdam at the end of August, 1914, in the Nieuw Amsterdam, having as his fellow-passengers several hundred reservists of the Central Powers, who were endeavoring to join the colors. Their patriotic object (and patriotism appears to have been the only pleasing quality most of them possessed) was frustrated by a French warship and their story abruptly terminates. Mr. Hunt, however, finally reached his destination, visited Berlin, and thence went through Holland to Antwerp, arriving there in time to witness the bombardment, the retreat of the Belgian defenders and of the ill-fated little British force sent to their assistance by the impetuous Mr. Churchill, and the entry of the German conquerors. All of this he describes vividly and with much interesting detail. Particularly for his own countrymen, however, the second half of the volume affords the more fascinating reading. Here he tells of his experiences in administering relief to the stricken province for which it was his privilege to play the part of Providence. It is a moving story and we do not know that we have seen it better told. The horrors of it are implied rather than expressed, and the narrative, as must have been the case with Mr. Hunt's own daily routine, is lightened with a saving sense of humor. On American ears the tale of Belgian gratitude, illustrated by copious quotation, will fall gratefully. Of the new unity in dissolution which has come to Belgium out of her anguish Mr. Hunt gives a hopeful picture, and for that unity a large share of the credit is rendered, as the world has given it by almost unanimous acclaim, to Cardinal Mercier, "the bravest man in Belgium."

"A WORD to critics," says Mr. R. J. Campbell in his preface to "A Spiritual Pilgrimage" (Appleton; $2 net). "This book makes no pretensions and challenges no comparisons. It is a plain and unadorned account, honestly set forth, of one man's spiritual evolution." To this the critic will respectfully defer. The facts are these: R. J. Campbell, born in England, son of a minister in the United Methodist Church, was reared by his grandparents in the Presbyterian Church in the North of Ireland. He went to school in England and was a communicant in the Church of England. As a student at Christ Church, Oxford, he studied for orders in the Anglican Church, but changed his mind and was ordained minister of the Union Street Congregational Church, Brighton. Later he became minister of City Temple, London, but was ordained in the Church of England in 1916, and at present is a priest in St. Philip's Cathedral Church, Birmingham. Mr. Campbell has been a singular figure and a famous preacher during his pastorate of thirteen years in City Temple, and his book derives interest from these facts alone. "Spiritual Pilgrimage" is, however, hardly the description for it. A pilgrim toils and struggles and agonizes, and the record of his pilgrimage will bear the marks of sweat and blood. This account is reminiscent, anecdotal, chatty. It is the story of a tourist rather than of a pilgrim. There is a tradition in Oxford of Newman standing at his desk, writing, thinking, and growing thinner and more transparent every day. He himself speaks of those months in Oxford as his Anglican deathbed. We find nothing here of this agony and daily dying. Mr. Campbell motors from the Congregational Church in Bornemouth to the private chapel of Bishop Gore in Oxford, and there is received as a communicant of the Anglican Church—an easy transition which seems symbolic. In spite of Mr. Campbell's protest to the critic, his book cannot help but challenge comparison, for the very names in the preface and on the title-page—"Edgbaston," "Birmingham"—inevitably summon up recollections of Newman and the "Apologia." Between the two confessions a significant difference is that Newman is influenced by men, Mr. Campbell by books. Froude, Keble, Pusey, Williams, and many others constitute the noble society which gives life and color to the "Apologia"—"those familiar affectionate companions and counsellors, who in Oxford were given to me, one after another, to be my daily solace and relief; and all those others of great name and high example, who were my thorough friends, and showed me true attachment in times long past." There is nothing of this in Mr. Campbell's autobiography. The noble society of friends in the "Apologia" is here replaced by a long catalogue of the books which the author has read, which gives a critical, detached tone to the volume in place of the intense, inward life of the "Apologia."

ISSUED under the direction of C. H. Firth and Walter Raleigh, professors of modern history and English literature in the University of Oxford, the Oxford Historical and Literary Studies seek to present in scholarly form certain little-known documents, to illuminate some of the forgotten corners of English history and literature—interpreting English in the broadest sense. Volume VI in this admirable series dealt with Keigwin's Rebellion (1683-4), an episode in the history of Bombay. Volume VII, "Lord Selkirk's Work in Canada," by Chester Martin (Oxford University Press; 8s. 6d. net), is devoted to an episode in the history of Canada, or more correctly of a portion of British North America that afterward became a province of the Canadian Dominion. In 1804 the fifth Earl of Selkirk was entertained at the once famous Beaver Club in Montreal by the partners of the North West Company—nabobs of the fur trade. Selkirk had for some years devoted himself to the problem of finding a suitable place in the British territories overseas to which to direct emigration from the Highlands of Scotland. He had already experimented with Prince Edward Island and Baldoon, in the western peninsula of Upper Canada, between Lakes Erie and Huron. The Nor'-Westers of the Beaver Club, intent only on hospitality, fired Selkirk's imagination with the possibilities of the Red River valley.

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Had they known that within a few years their guest would be guilty of the heinous offence of planting a colony in the very heart of their fur-trading territories, they would probably have made both the Beaver Club and Montreal too hot for him. It has remained for Mr. Martin not only to give the complete history of this romantic and rather tragic attempt at colonization, but also to vindicate the character of a man who had been the victim of circumstance. For many years the bitterness engendered by the fierce conflict between Selkirk and the Hudson's Bay Company on the one hand and the North West Company on the other, made it practically impossible to write anything about Selkirk that was not utterly partisan. Then the union of the fur-trading companies in 1821 led to what our author calls a "discreet silence." When later writers attempted to tell the story, lacking most of the really vital documents, they could do nothing better than strike an uncertain balance between the published statements of Selkirk and the Canadian fur-traders. Within the last few years, however, there have been acquired by the Dominion Archives a very complete collection of the papers of Lord Selkirk, and a large number of letters and journals of the North West Company. Mr. Martin has read and digested these voluminous documents with conscientious and scholarly care.

"WILLIAM NEWTON CLARKE," A Biography, with Additional Sketches by His Friends and Colleagues (Scribner; $2 net), which is the record of the life of the Colgate teacher of Christian theology, appears without a name on the title page, although there is no attempt at concealment that Mrs. Clarke is the author. It is the modest, unassuming story of the quiet, uneventful life of a man who did as much as any other in Britain or America to steady minds troubled over religious difficulties and to reconcile the thought of the Christian churches to the changes of view made necessary by modern science and historical criticism. Mrs. Clarke's biography makes clear how he was able to render his unique and important service. He was grounded soundly in the old school of faith. He entered the Baptist ministry with the traditional views of evangelical Protestantism, which he preached for years with good conscience. Only very slowly and gradually did he reach a different point of view. There were no crises in his formation of new doctrine, no periods of violent struggle and readjustment. He was the possessor of a patient mind and a steady spirit. Mrs. Clarke mentions a dozen or more authors and treatises which exercised a reforming influence upon him, but no one of them seems to have had a predominant power. He was a hard student and could tolerate no inconsistencies. Carefully and thoroughly he built up for himself a revision of the principal articles of faith, and not until he was fifty years of age did he publish the results. Then appeared his "Outline of Christian Theology," a work which at once fixed his fame as one of the clearest, sanest, and most helpful teachers of Christian theology America has produced. When one has finished Mrs. Clarke's intimate account of his quiet life of ministry, the secret of his skill in handling abstruse themes in a manner intelligible and helpful to even a plain reader becomes clear. The story of one so largely useful in American religious life—and Dr. Clarke also exerted a strong influence in Great Britain, particularly in Scotland and Wales—should have been told, and it is well that the intimate view which only Mrs. Clarke could give constitutes the permanent record of his life.

THE third volume of The Century Fine Art Series for Young Readers, by Charles L. Barstow, is entitled "Famous Sculpture" (Century; $1 net). Some of the writer's statements will not pass unchallenged by professional critics, if the book falls into the hands of any such; there are several disturbing misprints, some of which will prove confusing even to the juvenile mind; and the illustrations occasionally do not illustrate the text. Yet, in spite of these defects, the book will probably be found interesting by the youthful readers for whom it is intended, and with its glossary of terms and pronouncing vocabularies of proper names, it is well fitted to convey a considerable amount of useful information.

THE difficult task of surveying clearly in a single volume the complex development of Europe from the Middle Ages to the beginning of the Wars of Religion has been well accomplished by Chalfant Robinson in "Continental Europe, 1270-1598" (Holt). The volume is a free translation, with some wise omissions and additions, from the French textbook of P. Bondois and Ch. Dufayard. As in the similar volume on "Mediæval Europe," by Bémont and Monod, particular attention and emphasis is given to the growth of French institutions, and the political narrative bristles with innumerable facts and proper names. Though literature and art find some mention, pioneers in natural science like Galileo and Vesalius, and in political science like Bodin and Alciatus, are passed by without notice. In the absence of maps the reader must have recourse to some good historical geography, like W. R. Shepherd's.

UNDER the editorship of Julius Goebel the American branch of the Oxford University Press has established a new series of monographs entitled Germanic Literature and Culture. The first publication is Johann Valentin Andreae's "Christianopolis," translated and edited with an historical introduction by Felix Emil Held. Dr. Held's purpose is to make better known the work of a German clergyman, pedagogue, and social reformer distinguished in the seventeenth century, and to demonstrate his influence directly upon "The New Atlantis" and the "Nova Solyma," and indirectly upon the foundation of the Royal Society in London. The translation appears to be faithful, but is sometimes lacking in freedom and vigor, and does not succeed in the perhaps impossible task of making Andreae's description of his ideal commonwealth very stimulating. The introduction gives a conspectus of the literature on the whole subject, and will be useful for reference. It summarizes opinions, corrects errors, and rectifies ill-founded judgments. Dr. Held doubtless overestimates his author, but the things for which Andreae may be regarded as noteworthy are properly specified, and a fair degree of probability is made out for the theses here propounded. This part of the book is ample rather than orderly; there are repetitions and confusing cross-references. Where so much is included there might be mention of a much more attractive Christian commonwealth than this of the seventeenth century, namely, the "Wolfaria" depicted in the "Fünfzehn Bundsgenossen" of Luther's disciple, Johann Eberlin von Günzburg.

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Spring in Russia—1917

YOUNG giant of the North, is it indeed
The quickening of spring for you at last?
Is this the hour that all the world must heed
The hour that breaks the prison of your past?
The dawn of liberty has glimmered long
On your horizon—breaks at last the day?
O patient land through suffering made strong,
Forward, unswerving now, in Freedom's way!
Land that has trodden in stern loneliness
The winepress of a grief not understood,
Let thy dyed garments glow amid the stress
Of nations as the banner of the Good,
Wise through thy centuries of tyranny
To champion the Light that is to be.

AMELIA JOSEPHINE BURR

Crucifixions

E'EN as they nailed Him bleeding to the cross
Now all ignobly have they slain His word,
Condemned the pleading ways of love unheard,
Turned the dear gains of centuries to loss.

Not till they vanquished Him with tree and nail,
Not till they slew Him did the Christ prevail!

Shall not His word, then, follow where He trod?
Mercy and truth and justice crucified—
Thorn on the brow, spear in the piercèd side—
Give these to walk the world once more, O God!

M. A. DEWOLFE HOWE

Notes from the Capital

Gen. James Franklin Bell

THE first army officer of high rank to take formal cognizance of the necessity for adopting stringent military precautions in this country was Gen. James Franklin Bell, who is to replace Gen. Leonard Wood at New York. His order to the sentries on guard at the fortifications adjacent to San Francisco, to shoot to kill any aviator discovered flying over these reservations, seems a stern one, but it is entirely in accord with his belief that it is better to nip trouble in the bud than to wait till it comes and then try to apply remedies. From the day he began his military career, it has been his unvarying rule to leave nothing to chance, but to settle all current business as it came along. In the army they have many stories to tell in illustration of his directness of method. One has it that when he was a young subaltern he discovered that, what with new uniforms and other ornamental expenses forced upon him at one rather trying period, there was likely to be a balance on the wrong side of his private accounts when he next footed them up. A popular man, with a good name for keeping his word, he was offered a half-dozen endorsements if he wished to have a note discounted at bank; but he declined all these kindly overtures, and went at the business of recouping in a manner quite unknown among his associates when they were in similar plight. He had learned where he could buy a carload of potatoes at wholesale with a modest payment down, and of a number of small towns where they could be sold in broken lots at a fair profit, so he obtained a leave of absence and went regularly into the business. By the date his leave expired he had enough cash in hand to head off the threatened deficit and make his mind easy for some time in the future.

Another story told to show how little comparative importance he attaches to outward forms when something worth while has to be done, describes him as having set out to deliver a report on a certain essential matter to his superior officer, Gen. McArthur, and finding himself separated from his destination by a stretch of morass, in which the mud was too soft to permit crossing on the surface and too stiff to permit swimming. It would have consumed too much precious time to go around the obstacle: he must get through it somehow. So without hesitancy he stripped off his own clothing and took everything from his horse that could obstruct motion, and, bestriding the animal in this condition, forced it to ford the swamp with him. When he reached the General's headquarters, the appearance of himself and his mount can be imagined. McArthur, who was uniformed in strict accordance with regulations, was dumfounded at the advent of such a looking messenger, and barely caught his breath in time to acknowledge the latter's salute; but Bell did not seem in the least embarrassed, and postponed any explanations of his plight till he had duly delivered his report.

The chief criticism made of Bell's military methods has to do with what many of his friends style his recklessness, but it is a theory of his that, as he can lay down his life only once at the utmost, he might as well sell it at a good price as to give it away; and it must be said in defence of this view that such leadership not only spreads an infection of daring among the troops, but soon arouses in the minds of a superstitious enemy the notion that the daredevil chief bears a charmed life, and that it is practically useless to oppose him. When, in the Philippines, the first discharge of volunteer soldiers occurred, Bell, who had already acquired a great reputation for accomplishing whatever he set out to do, was authorized to offer reënlistment to any of the men who cared to remain for further service, and to organize a regiment of these. His proposal was gladly accepted by some five hundred of the discharged contingent, and as the exploits of the new regiment were noised about, a significant nickname was attached to it at headquarters—"Bell's Suicide Club." It was on a foray made by his "club," if I remember aright, that he invented a new weapon. He was hot-footed after a Filipino officer whom he was bound to capture when his ammunition gave out. There was no time to waste on an effort to replenish, for he was almost on top of his quarry; so, still riding at full gallop, he contrived to unbuckle one of his stirrups and, seizing it by the end of the strap, he swung it around his head like a huge slungshot, and with this and the use of a leatherlike pair of lungs threw his enemy into a spasm of terror and took him prisoner. It was a number of performances like this, including one in which, with only a handful of companions, he charged a body of a hundred

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Filipinos, drove them to flight, and single-handed captured a captain and two privates by sheer dash after he had fired the last cartridge in his revolver, that won his then unexampled promotion from a captaincy to a brigadier-generalship in the regular army, over the heads of more than one thousand officers who stood before him on the army list.

Bell is a big man physically, with a genial face and manner, a modest deportment, and a readiness to "talk over" debatable points which gives him a marked advantage in any peaceful controversy. But when it comes to real war, he could give Benjamin Franklin points on diligence. It is a maxim with him that an army has no business with intrenching tools. Rifles, not spades, he declares, are the suitable equipment for soldiers, for as soon as an army settles down in intrenchments the enemy recognizes it as a signal for getting ready to attack, whereas the secret of success in fighting is to keep the other fellows on the run. Bell is now about sixty-one years old, but with a lot of good blood in him still, and, though he may not be able to take the field in his old style, his counsel will be sought in any coming emergency. It is safe to prophesy that he will always be found on the side of those who believe that the best way to end a war is to push it to a finish without a let-up, even if it does work some hardships—a peace procured by such compulsion being cheaper in the end than a long-drawn endeavor to give an aspect of gentleness to what is essentially ungentle and hideous. TATTLER

The Leader of the Opposition

ACCORDING to a familiar axiom, it is the duty of a Leader of the Opposition to oppose. Certain circumstances attendant upon Mr. Asquith's sudden unexpected retirement from high position brilliantly held through eight stirring years suggested the possibility of the introduction of some acerbity into the Opposition methods. His speech on the Address dissipated hope founded upon these reflections. As usual brief, it was friendly and business-like. He put to the Leader of the House several questions "not in any spirit of criticism, but in the spirit of inquiry." In the concluding passage he besought the crowded House to "let there be no jarring voices, no party cross-currents, no personal or sectional distraction."

His attitude as Leader of the Opposition being thus defined, reëstablishment of the temporarily lapsed office is full of promise for the progress of business. A Leader of the Opposition is almost as necessary to the perfect working of the practice of debate and the machinery of legislation as is the Leader of the House. That old Parliamentary hand, now Lord Chaplin, recognized this fact when the creation of a Coalition Government cleared the Front Opposition Bench of its principal occupants. The House good-humoredly smiled when he stepped into the breach and with a mingled grace and gravity of manner founded on recollections of Disraeli, Gladstone, and other giants of days that are dead asked the Prime Minister what business he proposed to take on the morrow and on days succeeding through the week. He never ventured to go beyond this formal inquiry. Once or twice, when some of his neighbors, flocking to the Front Opposition Bench as to a new Cave of Adullam, showed a disposition to harass the Government with awkward questions or acrid criticism, he, protesting lack of personal authority, winningly besought them to desist. It was a pretty bit of by-play, charmingly courtly, altogether ineffective. Mr. Asquith's assumption of the position and duties is quite another affair.

No one will more heartily welcome reëstablishment of the constitutional arrangements than the Prime Minister. It is not good for any Government to be left to carry on the work of Parliament unrestrained by a disciplined and well-led Opposition. During the period he was at the head of a Coalition Government, whose existence had automatically destroyed organized opposition, Mr. Asquith suffered from the unprecedented circumstance. The House of Commons is never without a small group of members who are ready at a moment's notice to undertake the duties of correcting the Government of the day, whether it be composed of leaders of its own party or of the party opposite. At one period last session this disposition became to a certain extent regularized under the direction of a triumvirate of statesmen prominent below the gangway on the Ministerial side. It did not prove useful for public purposes, while it weakened the position of the Government, harassed its movements, and lessened its authority abroad. It will be different with a trained statesman, a born parliamentarian, leading the Opposition. Last session the House was too frequently left shepherdless, and after the manner of sheep it went astray. A familiar sight, presented day after day at five o'clock, was that of the Treasury Bench occupied solely by a Minister in charge of

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current business, the Front Opposition Bench accommodating two or three gentlemen indulging in casual conversation. Relieved from the urgent pressure of business outside the Parliamentary area, Mr. Asquith will be able to give fuller measure of attendance upon the course of debate. Mr. Bonar Law will be almost equally free to devote his attention to the business of the House. This will be a long-desired, supremely useful recurrence to established Parliamentary habits prevalent prior to the establishment of Mr. Balfour's Ministry following on the death of Lord Salisbury. HENRY LUCY

House of Commons, February 16

Joseph Halévy

THE death of Joseph Halévy, the eminent Orientalist, in Paris on February 2 at the advanced age of eighty-nine, calls for more than a passing comment. With the exception of Theodore Noeldeke, of the University of Strassburg, who belongs in a class by himself, there was no other contemporary Orientalist whose range of learning was as wide as was Halévy's. He was one of those rare scholars who, while losing nothing of thoroughness, by a gradual extension of the scope of their studies manage to acquire an authoritative rank in various fields. Professor Halévy held for many years the chair of Ethiopic at the Sorbonne and was recognized as one of the leading Ethiopic scholars who, in addition to his knowledge of the older and more classical speech, was acquainted also with the various modern Abyssinian dialects. He was among those to lay the foundation for our knowledge of the South Arabic inscriptions which have opened up for us the early history of Arabia back to about 1500 B. C. He was profoundly versed in all the various branches of Arabic literature. He was an Old Testament scholar of the very first order and as a Hebraist comprised in his scope the vast realm of the post-Biblical Rabbinical literature. For his recreation he wrote Hebrew poetry. Born in Adrianople (December 15, 1827), Turkish and Arabic became languages as familiar to him as at a later period the various modern European languages, which he knew thoroughly and spoke fluently. But his most notable achievements were in the domain of Assyriology, of which he was one of the most indefatigable of students. Indeed, he may be counted among the pioneers also in that branch of research, and at all events the last of the earlier students who had laboriously to work out the problems of the cuneiform script to pass away.

Of his early life in Adrianople and later in Bucharest little is known except that he had a hard struggle for his existence and used the leisure hours of a teacher burdened with considerable work to carry on his own studies. He came to Paris in the 60's, and soon began to attract attention. In 1867 he was sent on a journey by the Alliance Israelite Universelle to Abyssinia in order to obtain an authentic account of the history and present condition of the old Jewish settlements in Abyssinia known as Falashas (a corrupt form of Fellahs). His report on these interesting settlements is still recognized as the most valuable contribution on this subject despite the work since then done by others. He utilized his journey to Abyssinia to obtain information of the whereabouts of old inscriptions in Abyssinia and Arabia, and not long after his return he was entrusted with an important scientific mission by the French Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres to go to Jemen (Southern Arabia) for the purpose of studying the epigraphical remains—a most perilous undertaking because of the hostility of the natives towards strangers. Not a few scholars lost their lives in attempting to do what Halévy succeeded in carrying out, to wit, bringing back with him almost seven hundred squeezes of inscriptions from all parts of Southern Arabia. No doubt his acquaintance with living Oriental languages was a most valuable asset in his equipment and one which saved him from the fate which befell a number of his successors. There was only one scholar, the late Eduard Glaser, who succeeded, in the course of several journeys, in obtaining a larger harvest of these important early Arabic remains. Halévy's report, published in 1872, was followed by numerous special articles gathered into a volume, "Mélanges d'Epigraphie et d'Archéologie Sémitiques," and by his "Etudes Sabéennes" in 1875. This latter work became the point of departure for all subsequent studies in South Arabic epigraphy.

It was about this time that Halévy began to be attracted to the study of the Cuneiform Inscriptions. In the early 70's this branch of Semitic studies was still in what may be called the "guesswork" stage. The basis of the decipherment of the curious wedge-shaped characters had been definitely obtained and considerable progress made in determining the general character of the "Assyrian" language as it was christened by scholars. Many details, however, still escaped investigators, and there was considerable uncertainty in the translations of new texts as they were discovered. One of the leading Assyriologists of the day was Jules Oppert, of German origin, whose career was spent in Paris. Oppert, who was the first occupant of the chair for Assyriology, established in the Collège de France, announced the theory that the civilization of Babylonia and Assyria was the result of a mixture of two races, a non-Semitic race known as the Sumerians and a Semitic population known as the Akkadians. In the Cuneiform Inscriptions, Oppert (as well as others) found what he believed to be abundant traces of the earlier non-Semitic language. Halévy seized upon this theory, not, however, in order to accept it, but to controvert it. Beginning in 1875, he issued the first of a long series of publications intended to show that what scholars had called a non-Semitic language was nothing but Assyrian, written partly in ideographic form (that is, each sign standing for a word) and partly in a semi-artificial, semi-cryptic manner so as to give to the language the character of a sacred tongue employed by the priests in the ritual. Halévy became known as the founder and advocate of the "Anti-Sumerian Theory." His views brought him into conflict with the scholars of the day and more particularly with Oppert, who became his chief opponent. The Anti-Sumerian "heresy," as it was sometimes called, was a bombshell in the camps of the orthodox followers of Oppert, and the controversy that ensued, spreading to other lands, became one of the most famous of those days. Halévy wrote profusely and Oppert answered voluminously. Bitter words were exchanged by the chief opponents, though outside of France the controversy never assumed a personal aspect. The battle ebbed to and fro for many years. Halévy would read his papers before the Société Asiatique or before the Académie des Inscriptions, and Oppert would reply. Oppert was fluent and caustic, but somewhat pompous; Halévy was keen and incisive. From Paris the controversy made its way into international

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congresses of Orientalists which were held in the various centres of Europe every few years. Professor Oppert, a man of striking appearance, was a never-failing figure at these congresses. Halévy, who cared less for public gatherings, would occasionally come merely for the one purpose of defending his Anti-Sumerian theory. He wrote paper after paper and followed up smaller communications by larger monographs dealing with the various aspects of the topic. By virtue of his broad achievements, his ingenuity, and his keen logic, he succeeded in showing the weak points of the Sumerian theory, the advocates of which laid themselves open to criticism by drawing wide-reaching conclusions that were not justified by the state of Assyriological research in the 70's and 80's. Professor Halévy succeeded in showing that much of what was regarded by advocates of the theory as proving a non-Semitic type of language could be explained quite as satisfactorily as Semitic. Until discoveries of older texts began to be made through the excavations of the mounds in Southern Babylonia, the Sumerologists were obliged to rely upon texts that were comparatively recent or upon late copies of older texts. These texts were decidedly mixed in character, and it was therefore not surprising to find Professor Halévy gaining important adherents for his theory. Indeed, at one time, it looked as though there would be a stampede to his side, when Prof. Friedrich Delitzsch, the most distinguished Assyriologist of Germany and the teacher of a large proportion of contemporary Assyriologists in all lands, announced his adherence to the Anti-Sumerian theories of Halévy. In 1897, on the occasion of an international congress of Orientalists in Paris, a vote taken in the Assyriological Section showed the alarming growth of the "heresy." The eminent M. François Thureau-Dangin, until about ten years ago, himself was strongly inclined towards Halévy's point of view, and indeed was looked upon for some time as one of his followers. Curiously enough, it was this distinguished French scholar who turned the tide definitely in the other direction. The excavations conducted by Ernest De Sarzec under the auspices of the French Government for more than twenty years at Telloh (1877-1901)—the site of the ancient city of Lagash—unearthed a large number of Cuneiform texts of all kinds belonging to the third millennium before this era and revealing what may be called a pure and original form of Sumerian. A careful study of these exceedingly difficult texts convinced Thureau-Dangin that they represented a genuine language, distinct in its entire character from Semitic Babylonian.

Following in the footsteps of an earlier French scholar, Arthur Amiaud, whose premature death was a great loss to science, Thureau-Dangin succeeded in laying the foundations for the study of Sumerian on an assured and definite basis. As a result, scholars are now able to tackle Sumerian texts with much greater confidence, although the absence of comparison with any other known language of the same type renders the progress necessarily slow. However, the general features of the Sumerian grammar, both the noun and verb formation, are tolerably clear, and the number of stems and words whose meanings have been definitely ascertained is large enough to enable us to interpret even the longer Sumerian texts with considerable definiteness, albeit such texts still furnish many passages which for the present remain obscure. After Thureau-Dangin had demonstrated that Sumerian was not written exclusively in these texts by signs representing an entire word (that is, "ideographically"), but that words were spelled out phonetically, precisely as was the case in the Semitic Babylonian and Assyrian texts, there could, of course, no longer be any question that Sumerian represented a real language and not merely a form of writing Semitic Babylonian. The results reached by Thureau-Dangin, who was heralded by no less a scholar than Professor Delitzsch as the "pioneer" in Sumerology, were confirmed by an important study of Sumerians and Semites from the archæological side, as revealed on the monuments, which was made by Prof. Eduard Meyer, of the University of Berlin.

The final decision in this controversy, which held the stage of Oriental studies for almost a generation, was thus ultimately given in favor of Oppert, though not until the latter had passed away. Halévy himself, however, remained unconvinced, and with a persistency and vigor which he retained until his death he continued the fight for his cause in the pages of the *Revue Sémitique*, a quarterly which he established some twenty years ago and to which he was the chief and almost the sole contributor. This *Revue*, with its longer and shorter articles, critical reviews, and book notices from Halévy's pen, and covering the entire field of Oriental research, stands forth as the most significant monument to the great scholar's tremendous fertility. Each number of the periodical contained from 150 to 200 closely printed pages, and if one considers what it means to fill this amount of space every three months—for the *Revue* and Joseph Halévy were absolutely synonymous, with only occasional contributions from other pens—one will realize the vast resources and enormous learning as well as the indomitable energy of this man which enabled him to carry on such work until he was in sight of four-score years and ten.

MORRIS JASTROW, JR.

Reviews of Plays

"THE FUGITIVE"

IT is impossible to pronounce Mr. Galsworthy's play, "The Fugitive," which was presented last week at the Thirty-ninth Street Theatre, either great or fine—except as it has the fineness of sincerity. If it could have been seen before our dramatists had become obsessed by a study of sociology, it might have seemed impressive. But at present it appears no better than a sketch of a vital subject. It has the commendable object of attacking the marriage laws in England by which a woman unhappily married has no escape. In a case of this kind an author should be particularly careful of his premises. Mr. Galsworthy asks us to accept his word for it that the lot of Clare Desmond, daughter of a poor country parson who has married a wealthy, fashionable man, is intolerable. Yet as he is sketched Desmond appears to be merely the ordinary unimaginative man who is perhaps somewhat too violently impressed by his wife's prettiness; and Clare is made to seem unusually impatient with a situation which is not at all ideal. If by not exaggerating the grounds for uncongeniality of these two persons Mr. Galsworthy has been careful to select a typical instance, he has not been able to give the wife's action anything like conviction.

For the rest, the play pictures what has now become a commonplace on the stage—the hardship experienced by a young pretty woman who is thrown upon her own resources

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for a livelihood. Yet here again Mr. Galsworthy asks us to accept too much. Clare is well educated and might have aspired to something higher than the position of shopgirl, even though she had wished—as she did wish—to remain in obscurity after leaving her husband. As it is, after some months of this grind she seeks out the one man who had offered her advice and the protection of his home, Malise, a writer with advanced ideas. Yet when she realizes that her difficulties threaten to ruin his career she leaves him to try the "easiest way," only to find that she cannot bring herself to it. A bottle of poison is the only remedy. Even so brief an outline of the play as this should disclose a disturbing strain of melodrama. What success it may attain will be largely owing to the essential pathos of the subject matter; for the author's treatment is in no way distinguished.

As Clare, Miss Emily Stevens was too little composed both in speech and in manner to contribute dignity to the part. Mr. Conway Tearle, in the rôle of Malise, gave a sound performance. F.

THE WASHINGTON SQUARE PLAYERS

THE new bill of the Washington Square Players is chiefly notable for a cleverly written and amusing little satire in two acts by Edward Massey, entitled "Plots and Playwrights." Mr. Massey is one of an ever-increasing number of writers for the stage who are in debt to the "movies." Whether the inverted process of making a "movie" into a speaking play is altogether a good thing for the drama may be questioned, but at least the result, as in the present case, is often happier than the motivation (so to speak) of a drama. Mr. Massey at any rate knows moderation, taking a hint for his construction from the "movies" and for the rest writing legitimate satire. The scheme is unfolded in a prologue, when a drunken Broadway playwright (why he should be drunk is not immediately obvious) meets a casual stranger going into his rooming-house and complains to him of the difficulty of finding new plots. There is a plot, the stranger replies, on every floor of this or any other similar house, and he engages there and then to bring to the playwright on a given date three new plays. Then comes in the wisdom learned of the movies, with three scenes detailing each a comedy or tragedy of one of the three floors, realistic little things neatly done. In the second act the author has read his efforts to the Broadway playwright, and the latter finds the ideas not at all bad, but the way they are carried out quite impossible—Broadway would never "stand for it." Whereupon he takes the characters of the three scenes, lumps them all together, and—hey presto!—the movies again. Up goes the curtain on a typical Broadway melodrama. The satire is really well done, with not too much exaggeration of the real thing, and the cast, with the exception of Miss Helen Westley, who plays for an easy laugh by taking care to let the audience know that she knows that it is all burlesque, admirably reflects the author's spirit.

The other two productions, which we have space only to mention, are "The Poor Fool," translated by Mrs. F. E. Washburn-Freund from the German of Hermann Bahr, a gloomy but not unimpressive sketch, which affords a good opportunity to José Ruben, and Molière's "Sganarelle," very freely translated by Philip Moeller, which is creditably acted and well produced. S. W.

"EILEEN"

THE recrudescence of unrest in Ireland lends pertinence, and the art of Mr. Victor Herbert gives charm, to the production now holding the boards at the Shubert Theatre. It is a romantic comic opera in the composer's happiest vein, spirited in manner, pleasing in instrumentation, and replete with tuneful airs. Its book, by Henry Blossom, while neither original in plot nor frequently clever in dialogue, is commendably free from horseplay and serves adequately as a prop for the music. The audience, after rising to the national anthem, settled down to an evening of obvious enjoyment, which deepened to vociferous enthusiasm when a simple Irish lad melodiously insisted that "Ireland must some day be free." A. L.

Finance

The Response of the Markets

WHATEVER test was applied to the attitude of Wall Street and of the financial community in general, when the news was received of Germany's defiant overt act, the sinking of the three American steamers, that attitude could hardly be interpreted except as expressing satisfaction at the ending of an impossible international situation, and composure regarding the financial results. The test was *in some respects unusually complete.* News from the war zone had been awaited, throughout the preceding week, with unmistakable apprehension. It had been a matter of dispute how far the firmness of the market, during the period of suspense since February 3, was a trustworthy index to the situation, because the trading in that period had been virtually confined to professional operators.

What the outside investing public would do, on receipt of any news distinctly foreshadowing war, was a matter of conjecture. But it was the large buying orders of these very outsiders which admittedly made possible on the Stock Exchange last week's enormous business at advancing prices, in the very days which followed the loss of American lives by the deliberate act of Germany, and in the very week when Wall Street itself made up its mind that war was unavoidable. When, however, one recalls the stock market's violent collapse on the news of the Lusitania in 1915—or, even more particularly, the world-wide panic, the moratoriums, the closing of stock exchanges, which greeted the outbreak of war in 1914—it is not surprising that the question should be asked with much perplexity, What is the reason for last week's altered attitude?

Primarily it is reasonable to ascribe it to the feeling, in financial circles as well as elsewhere, that the time had come when the national rights must be vindicated, and that the long series of insults, outrages, and affronts perpetrated on the United States by the German Government had at length created a situation in which the country's best interests of every sort would be served by taking the final step to put an end to them. But this was not all. The further and very evident explanation of last week's response is that the community at large has come to understand the absolute difference between financial Europe's condition in August, 1914 (or even our own situation at that time) and the financial conditions in this country at the present hour.

This action of the American financial markets was in

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some sense an historic episode of the war. In a conflict whose history had been linked in so remarkable a way with the economic developments that accompanied it, whose early stages were as much a problem of financial expedients and the financial situation as they were of military and naval operations, and whose termination may possibly be a story of economic breakdown by the Power which provoked the war, the demonstration of financial confidence in this country, on the eve of our own participation in it, will arrest the attention of every future historian.

Yet the chapter is not finished, and therefore it is advisable that prudent financiers look forward as well as backward. The impulsiveness of financial America—especially its tendency to assume that nothing can alter or impair a position of spectacular prosperity—is a very familiar trait of the national character. We had abundant evidence, in such famous peace-time "booms" as those in 1901 and 1906, of the extent to which a disposition sometimes sweeps even experienced financiers off their feet. With all the unprecedented economic power which the country possesses to-day, and with all the just cause for gratification in and out of financial circles, that Germany is being called to account, it is at least the dictate of prudence to guard against loss of balance now.

This consideration is brought to mind by the violence with which financial opinion itself has fluctuated. In September, 1914, some of our most prominent financiers appeared to hold the view that the European war meant this country's economic ruin. Suspension of payment on maturing debts to Europe was openly advocated in high quarters. When that had been shown to be complete misunderstanding of the situation, sentiment rushed in a year or two to the opposite extreme, and the seemingly prevalent belief at the time of last autumn's excited Stock Exchange speculation was that nothing could stop or check the country's enormous prosperity. The menace of a break with Germany caused some moments of apprehension. Now there has come the past week's evidence that the financial markets are not alarmed, even at an impending war. Our own experience teaches that the state of mind created by such an episode is one to be watched with circumspection.

It is certainly not a financial situation with any immediate danger; the underlying economic position is far too strong for that. It is rather from the disposition to assume that we have a wholly unlimited fund on which to draw, for whatever purposes, that future misgiving might arise. That a reserve fund without attainable limit can exist was never true, and is not true to-day.

The store of available wealth and capital in this country is beyond all precedent, and it will be drawn upon in full measure to insure early success to our intervention in the war. But it could be used up—as it was, in an astonishingly short time, during the period of financial excess in 1901—if our financiers were suddenly to make up their minds that there is no reason for caution or prudent calculation. It is certainly not the less necessary to keep in mind these proper reservations when warm-hearted Americans, with the best of motives, are urging projects which, contemplating as they appear to do the immediate expenditure of thousands of millions, would create a European war debt in this country in twelve months, and when, moreover, American capital has ahead of it the stupendous task of providing for Europe's physical and financial reconstruction after war.

Meantime, however, the Government has heard from the financial markets, and to a purpose as cheering and reassuring as their response on the eve of the war of 1898. Bernhardi himself, in a moment of unguarded frankness, wrote some years ago that, in the event of a deadlocked military campaign, success in war would fall to the side which could hold out longest financially. Recent signs have indicated that the land campaign is no longer a deadlock; that military Germany is now giving way as the German Foreign Office did last December. But even if this were not so, a Germany confronted with France, England, and the United States, while itself supported by half-insolvent Turkey, Bulgaria, and Austria, would be confronted also with this German general's conclusions.

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Griffith-Jones, E. Faith and Immortality. Scribner.

Hall, A. D. Agriculture After the War. Dutton. $1.25 net.

Jones, D. An English Pronouncing Dictionary. Dutton. $3 net.

Kipling, R. Sea Warfare. Doubleday, Page. $1.25 net.

Kropotkin, P. Mutual Aid. Knopf. $1.25 net.

Little Folks in History Series: Little Folks on Thrones. Little Heroines. Little Heroes. Little Folks Who Did Great Things. Compiled by D. D. Calhoun. Abingdon Press. $1 net set.

Pearson, F. B. Reveries of a Schoolmaster. Scribner. $1 net.

Pearson, T. G. The Bird Study Book. Doubleday, Page. $1.25 net.

Pollard, H. B. C. The Story of Ypres. McBride.

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Summary of the News

WAR with Germany within the next few days appears now as certain as anything can be. Only the highly improbable event of a complete backdown by Germany on the submarine question can prevent it. Congress meets on Monday, summoned by President Wilson in a proclamation issued on March 21 to assemble two weeks before the time previously appointed. So soon as the House can organize itself the President will presumably ask Congress to declare the existence of a state of war with Germany.

PRESIDENT WILSON'S action in summoning Congress for April 2 is of historic interest not alone on account of the momentous event which it portends, but because of the peculiar circumstances in which it was taken. So far as it is possible to interpret the President's mind it seems to be pretty well established that before he met the Cabinet at the regular meeting on Tuesday, March 20, his inclination was to rest satisfied with his previously announced policy of armed neutrality. He found, according to Washington correspondents, who spoke with such unanimity as to suggest official inspiration, that the Cabinet, stirred by the sinking unwarned of three American ships and the consequent loss of American lives, was practically united in the opinion that more vigorous measures were urgently required. The inference is that President Wilson was won over to a change of policy by the forceful representations of his Cabinet and did not hesitate to admit the fact. It is doubtful whether American history affords a precisely parallel case.

PREPARATIONS for war, pending the formal announcement that it exists, have gone forward steadily. So far as the navy is concerned, the principal steps already announced have been the mobilization of a "mosquito" fleet for use against submarines, the placing of contracts for twenty-four destroyers of 35 knots, and the executive order of March 25 authorizing an increase in the enlisted strength of the navy to 87,000 men. That means that 18,000 more men are urgently needed by the navy. At the same time that the announcement was made Secretary Daniels sent a telegraphic appeal to editors throughout the country inviting their coöperation in giving publicity to this need. Several units of the National Guard were called out by the War Department on March 25 "for police purposes," Federal orders thus superseding action already taken by many States. On the same day Secretary Baker announced the redivision of the country into six military departments in place of the four at present existing, the two additional departments being formed by a subdivision of the Eastern Department into three. Major-Gen. Leonard Wood is transferred from the command of the Eastern Department to that of one of the new departments having headquarters at Charleston, S. C. His place is taken by Major-Gen. J. Franklin Bell. The Council for National Defence was summoned to meet this week in Washington.

SUBMARINES, since we wrote last week, have only succeeded in sinking one more American ship. That was the Standard Oil tanker Healdton, which was torpedoed without warning in the North Sea on the night of March 22. Twenty-one members of the crew, of whom seven were Americans, were lost. According to the captain the Healdton was within the so-called "safety lane" when she was torpedoed, the lights over the vessel's name serving as a mark for the submarine. The loss in the Mediterranean on March 19 of the cruiser Danton was officially admitted by the French Admiralty on March 23. With her 296 of the crew perished. The official British list for the week ending March 18 recorded the sinking of sixteen British ships of more than 1,600 tons and of eight of less than that tonnage. The French statement for the same week gives a loss of six French merchantmen of more and six of less than 1,600 tons. An attack, in which seven persons were killed, on two Belgian relief ships, sailing under solemn guarantees of safety, was described in an official statement given to the Associated Press on March 20. A Berlin statement of recent submarine achievements, issued on Sunday, brags, among other things, of the torpedoing of a hospital ship, the Asturias.

NEW danger zones were announced last week (March 23) by both the British and the German Governments. The British decree abolishes certain safety areas previously provided off the Dutch and Danish coasts; that of Germany is intended to close the port of Archangel. One object of the British action is apparently to prevent the escape of any more German commerce destroyers, like the Moewe, the safe return of which to a home port was announced from Berlin on March 22. The Moewe, according to revised statements from Berlin, had destroyed twenty-six ships. Among the captive crews which she has taken to Germany are fifty-seven Americans.

BELGIUM, it may be feared, faces additional torture through the withdrawal, together with Ambassador Whitlock, who has been instructed to go to Havre, of the American members of the Relief Commission. The inevitable withdrawal was announced by the State Department on Sunday in a statement which drew attention to the disabilities that have been endured by Ambassador Whitlock and members of the Commission for sake of the work in which they were engaged, and plainly said that the present action was necessitated by the absolute impossibility of putting faith in Germany's word in any particular. The work of relief will be continued by representatives of the Dutch Government.

FAITHLESSNESS on the part of Germany to solemn obligations is also the keynote of the reply given by Mr. Lansing to the German proposal, made through the Swiss Minister, for a renewal and amplification of the old Prussian-American treaties of 1799 and 1828 regarding the mutual treatment of nationals of the two countries in case of war. In declining to entertain the proposal the note, made public on Monday, cites the recent treatment of "innocent American citizens in Germany," and concludes with the assertion that "it would appear that the mutuality of the undertakings has been destroyed by the conduct of the German authorities."

GEN. CARRANZA'S amiable proposal for neutral action to bring about peace in Europe was formally declined in a note dated March 16 and made public by the State Department on March 20.

M. RIBOT'S Ministry received a unanimous vote of confidence from the Chamber of Deputies on March 21. In its declaration of policies the new Ministry pledged itself to vigorous prosecution of the war and avowed its complete confidence in Gen. Nivelle and other commanders of the French army.

IN the House of Commons on March 22, Mr. Bonar Law announced the determination of the Government to make another attempt to settle the Home-Rule question. Opinion in the lobbies after the debate was that the Government would appoint a commission including in its membership Colonial representatives in England for the Imperial Conference which was inaugurated on March 20.

THE German retreat in the west, it now appears from Berlin dispatches, is not only strategic and voluntary, but is a huge joke on the guileless Allies, who, having gained with little loss some thousand square miles of occupied territory, have yet to realize that in doing so they have been deprived of the fun of a costly offensive for which they had made elaborate preparations. Whatever their inner chagrin, the Allies continue to press on against stiffening German resistance. Roisel fell to the British on Saturday, and as we write the positions of Gen. Nivelle's troops seem to render the German tenure of St. Quentin insecure. The devastation spread in the wake of the German retreat, much of it of no possible military advantage, is the subject of a protest to neutrals by the French Government published in Monday's papers.

RUSSIA appears likely to escape the pitfalls of internal dissension inherent in any revolution and to have made astonishing progress towards settled government. Recent dispatches indicate strongly that the form of that Government, ultimately to be decided by a constituent assembly, will be republican, the Central Committee and Parliamentary representatives of the Constitutional Democratic party, of which Professor Milyukov is the leader, having voted in favor of that form. Meanwhile the temporary Government, while keeping a watchful eye on the foe within, is turning its attention vigorously to the foe without. That Germany is preparing for a new drive towards Petrograd on the Riga front has been the information from a number of sources. The statement was confirmed by a proclamation issued on March 24 by the new Russian Minister of War, A. J. Guchkov, appealing to the people of Petrograd especially to be on their guard against spies. The arrest of the Czar and Czarina and their confinement at Tsarkoe-Selo and the announcement of the retirement of the Grand Duke Nicholas from the post of Commander-in-Chief of the Russian armies (his appointment to which had been the subject of many contradictory rumors) were among the items of news of the past week. Though apparently accidental, it was a pleasing circumstance that the United States was the first Power formally to recognize the new Russian Government. Ambassador Francis presented the congratulations of this country on March 22.

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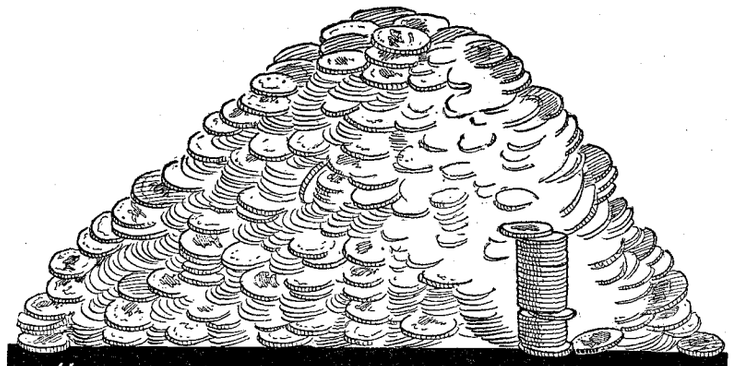

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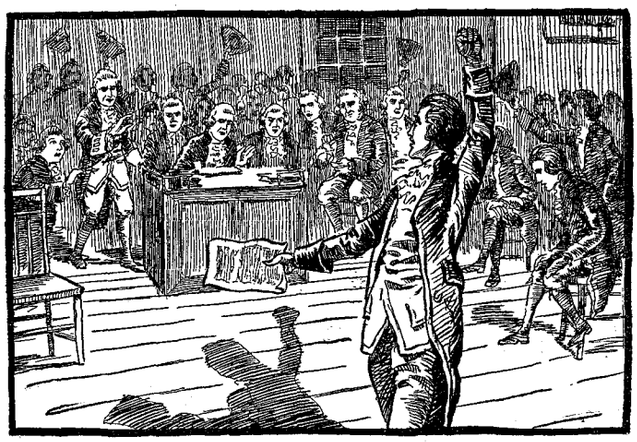

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